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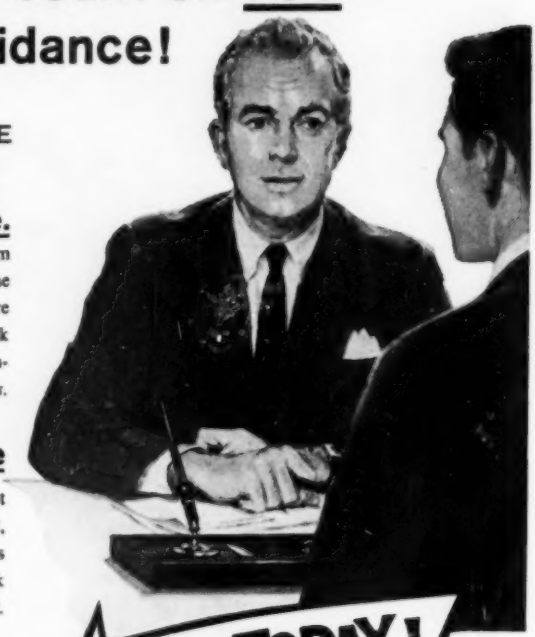

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The

Personnel and Guidance

Journal

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Transmitted by Max F. Baer

SCIENTIFIC AND ENGINEERING MANPOWER

Foundation broadens work: National Science Foundation, which is an independent agency of the U. S. Government, is accepting leadership in behalf of interested federal agencies for establishing and maintaining programs of national information on scientific and technical personnel. Among most urgent functions are these:

1. Identification of scientific and technical occupations. Analysis of work content and job descriptions to develop methods for identifying occupational categories when conducting surveys.

2. Pool of scientific and technical personnel. Periodic survey of organizations and agencies which are employers of such personnel, to obtain information on numbers and characteristics of workers.

3. Periodic study of demand outlook for various categories of personnel in each major activity. Such studies may include analysis of employment and production growth trends, changing roles of particular classes of scientific and technical personnel, to develop current estimates and forecasts for such personnel by occupation and educational levels.

Fewer freshman engineers: Freshman engineering enrollment in the fall of 1958 declined by more than 11 per cent--first decline in eight years. Special study by Engineering Manpower Commission of Engineers Joint Council and ASEE asked deans of engineering schools for reasons. Here's what they thought:

1. False appraisal of long-range engineering career opportunities by counselors, students, and parents, based on general press reports of lay-off and reduction of company engineering staffs during 1957-1958 recession.

2. Increased concern about rigors of engineering curriculum.

3. Increased interest by potential engineering students in other scientific fields resulting in diversion of students to other educational pursuits.

Scientists and engineers in industry: Nearly three-quarters of a million scientists and engineers were employed by American industry as of January, 1957, according to survey conducted by U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics for National Science Foundation. Total included 528,000 engineers, 152,000 scientists, and 58,000 administrators of scientific and engineering activities. Almost

one-third of these scientists and engineers were engaged in research and development activities. The 738,000 scientists and engineers employed in industries covered by this survey are estimated to represent about two-thirds of all American scientists and engineers.

Next to the 528,000 engineers, chemists were largest occupational group, with 72,000. Life scientists (medical, agricultural, biological) numbered 16,600; earth scientists (mainly geologists and geophysicists), 14,200; physicists and mathematicians, 12,100 and 12,400, respectively; metallurgists, 10,800.

Industries employing largest groups of scientists and engineers were electrical equipment, 92,900; aircraft and parts, 84,900; chemicals and allied products, 79,200; machinery, 74,100; petroleum products and extraction, 50,700; fabricated metal prodcuts and ordnance, 30,200; primary metals, 29,500; professional and scientific instruments, 24,600.

PROJECTIONS OF U. S. POPULATION, 1960-1980

Total population: Estimates of population of this country in 1980 range from low of 230.8 million to high of 272.6 million, according to report issued by Bureau of Census. Figures are not offered as predictions of future size of population but indicate approximate future level and age-sex composition of population under given alternative assumptions as to future fertility, mortality, and net immigration.

Elementary ages: Number of children of elementary school age (5 to 13 years) will reach about 34.5 million by 1962—a gain of about 6.5 million since 1955. Growth in this group in subsequent years is dependent, of course, mainly on unpredictable number of babies to be born in future years.

High school ages: Persons of high school age (14 to 17 years) will number about 14.3 million by 1965 and about 15.9 million by 1970, or more than 5.0 and 6.7 million, respectively, above 1955.

Population 18-24 years of age: This group includes college-age youth and provides bulk of recruits into labor force. There will be about 25 million persons in this group in 1970, or about 10.4 million above 1955. During next 10 to 15 years this group will grow relatively fast, with growth averaging close to one-half million annually in early part of 1960's and about one million per year in second half of decade. College-age group (18 to 21 years) will number about 14.6 million by 1970 and 16.3 million by 1975. This means roughly twice as many college-age persons in 1975 as in 1955.

Population in main working ages: The 25 to 64 year group will grow to 90.5 million in 1970 and 106.3 million in 1980, or about 25 million in the next 21 years. For next 10 to 15 years, population 25-44 years old will remain about same. After 1970 it will grow at somewhat higher rate.

Transition from School to Work: A Study of the School Leaver

ONE OF THE more persistent phenomena of recent labor market history in the U. S. has been the comparatively higher unemployment rates which prevail among young workers—higher than for any other age group, no matter what stage of the business cycle in which we find ourselves.

That this is so is perhaps not suprising in view of the fact that the younger person at the start of his career development obviously tends to change jobs more frequently, has less seniority, etc. In order to study this matter at somewhat greater depth, however, the Labor Department has been conducting a series of experimental surveys of the employment and unemployment experiences of young people during their first years in the labor market, focusing particularly on the boys and girls who drop out of school before graduating and those who do graduate from high school but do not go on to college.

These studies have yielded some significant findings with respect to the labor force experiences of this group. They have also resulted in a fund of other information concerning the characteristics of people who leave school which, together with the data on their labor market adjustment, may be of interest to the educator in general, to the guidance and counseling practitioner in particular. With this in view, the present paper attempts three things:

First, it describes very briefly the nature and conduct of these surveys. *Second*, it presents in summary form some of the basic findings—and *third*, it submits some suggestions and hypotheses concerning the school leaver and his relationship to the educational and guidance process.

SEYMOUR L. WOLFBEIN is Deputy Assistant Secretary of Labor, U. S. Department of Labor, Washington, D. C.

Study Population

The Bureau of Labor Statistics made surveys of school leavers in seven areas. In each case the surveys were actually conducted by local educational institutions on contract with BLS, using the same concepts, techniques, and schedules [*1*].

In each area information was obtained on all school leavers (defined to include all persons who (a) dropped out before graduating and (b) who graduated from high school but did not go on to college) for a period ranging from one to five years prior to the time of the survey. The total or universe count of school leavers amounted to approximately 22,000—including approximately 12,000 who graduated and 10,000 who dropped out prior to graduation. Information on age, sex, IQ, school achievement, etc., was obtained for these school leavers from their school records.

Additional data on their subsequent history since leaving school were obtained from a sample chosen from the universe of school leavers. Sampling ratios varied among the areas depending on their size and composition, but resulted in a sample of approximately 6,500 cases chosen for follow-up and interview. A total of about 4,000 of these were found and interviewed person-to-person; about 2,500 had moved away (to jobs in other areas, to the military, through marriage, etc.) and information on them was obtained from their families or adjacent households.

Since this series of studies was limited to seven areas, the summary results presented below should not be considered as necessarily representative of the U. S. as a whole. It will be noted from the appended list that the areas included were all moderately sized, ranging in population from about 30,000 to 350,000. They include no rural communi-

ties and no really large metropolitan areas. The results for each of the areas are, of course, based on reliable samples and are representative for each or all seven combined. However, the reader should remember the caveat that this may not necessarily be so for U. S. as a whole.

Major Study Results

Discussed below are some of the summary findings from our school leaver surveys, especially those which may be of interest in guidance and counseling. The detailed and complete data will be forthcoming soon in an over-all BLS bulletin on this subject. The following seven points are presented briefly with some of the relevant statistics.

1. Scores based on the Otis Mental Ability Group Test were available for a little less than half of the dropouts and a little over half the high school graduates. They were distributed as follows for the seven areas combined:

	Total	Less than 85	85–89	90–109	110 & Over
High school graduates, %	100	10	11	63	16
Dropouts, %	100	31	15	48	6

Remembering the limitations of any group test of this sort, as well as the importance of such factors as motivation, personality, temperament, interest, etc., the following observations seem warranted:

As is to be expected, the two groups (graduates and dropouts) can be differentiated rather sharply on the basis of IQ. The proportion with scores of less than 85 among dropouts was triple that among graduates; the proportion with scores of 110 and over among graduates was almost triple that among dropouts.

A score of 110 or better is often used as a rough indicator for successful completion of college. Less than one in 16 among dropouts (and about one in six among the graduates) achieved this score. Considering the fact that many girls prefer marriage; that for many boys and girls interest and, in fact, talents do not come under the academic context; that for many with even much higher IQ's formal college training is not necessarily indicated—all these make it a fair question to ask whether there really is a significantly high "wastage" in many of these people not going on to college. That there is some is unquestionably true, but that the dropout is a really strategic factor in the problem of the supply of college trained personnel is subject to question, at least on the basis of these limited data. Some of the summary findings presented immediately below are also relevant to this observation.

One other observation may be made at this time. While one may generalize on some of the characteristics of school leavers —whether they be dropouts or graduates who do not go on to college—it is also clear that we are dealing with a significantly heterogeneous group. Some scored comparatively very low on a group mental ability test; others scored comparatively very high. Some dropouts scored way above some graduates, and vice versa. In every one of our other findings the heterogeneity of the group is underscored and the classic tenet of education and guidance concerning individual differences is similarly emphasized. The import of all this in terms of program and policy will be referred to again later.

2. Turning now specifically to the approximately 10,000 dropouts studied in these surveys we find, first, that they left school at the following ages:

	Age at Leaving School				
All Dropouts	Under 16 Years	16	17	18 & Over	19 Years
100%	10%	34%	27%	17%	12%

In every one of the areas surveyed, school

attendance was obligatory until age 16, although in most of them a student 14 years or over could work and go to school under specified conditions in accordance with state law and, of course, the provisions of the Federal Fair Labor Standards Act. A small proportion did leave before that age, and while the school records were not unequivocally clear on this point, important reasons included ill health as well as marriage among the girls.

That dropouts do tend to leave upon attaining the legal permissible age is shown by the fact that the modal age for dropping out was 16—one out of every three left at this age. It is equally important to note, however, that a significant proportion of the dropouts—one in eight—left when they were already 19 years and even older, well past the average age for high school graduation.

Thus, the commonly drawn picture of the potential dropout straining at the leash to leave school and doing so immediately upon reaching the legally permissible age, while true of many, may very well be exaggerated in view of the performance of the majority of this sample of 10,000, who left school well past that age.

3. The fact that a big group drops out at an age already beyond that usual for high school graduation points to a substantial amount of retardation in school achievement for many of them.

The survey figures show that no less than 85 per cent of the dropouts were behind their age group by at least one year; 53 per cent were behind their age group by two or more years of school work. As Elizabeth Bernert has said so well of these boys and girls: "The road to graduation is a long one, and perhaps a lonely one, for the majority of their age mates have already been graduated" [2].

It is not surprising, therefore, to note the following findings:

All Dropouts	*Highest Grade Completed by Dropouts*		
	8th Grade or Less	*9th*	*10th or 11th*
100%	31%	30%	39%

It is of enormous significance that as many as almost one out of every three dropouts did not get beyond the 8th grade; that almost two out of three never reached senior high school—that is, dropped out before the 10th grade. And while we will summarize the implications of these findings later on, it will not be amiss to note at this point that a significant and substantial proportion of dropouts exit from the schools well before most kinds of occupational information or other facets of the guidance and counseling process even begin to function under current conditions. Practice on this score varies substantially, of course, but among the areas surveyed only about two out of every five dropouts had had any manner of vocational guidance at all.

4. As do most other surveys of this kind the studies described here examined and recorded reasons for dropping out of school. This was done from two vantage points: the reasons noted in the school records were obtained; and the dropouts themselves were asked why they left school. Below is a brief summary of the results.

		Reason for Dropping Out of School					
	Total %	*Reached Age 16,* %	*To go to Work,* %	*Marriage,* %	*Military Service,* %	*Adverse School Experience* %	*All Other,* %
Boy dropouts							
As given in school records	100	19	23	..	15	24	19
As given by the dropouts themselves	100	6	25	..	6	38	25
Girl dropouts							
As given in school records	100	16	13	22	..	21	28
As given by the dropouts themselves	100	4	12	27	..	31	26

There was, of course, a very sizable difference in reasons by area. In some areas, for example, *none* of the school records nor the dropouts themselves gave "reached age 16" as a reason for leaving school. In others the proportions were quite substantial. However, the reasons recorded from both sources (and they hardly agreed in some of the categories) were not very helpful or perhaps even meaningful in any attempt to get at the primary causes for dropping out of school.

In addition, most of the reasons given did not correlate with any kind of objective standard or even reasonable hypothesis. For example, one might presume that students who scored low on the mental ability test might assign "adverse school experience" much more than those who scored higher up on the scale. Our studies showed, instead, that students at both ends of the scale gave this as a reason for dropping out.

Thus, our experience coincides with other surveys in this field: it is difficult, if not well-nigh impossible to elicit perceptive information on the basic factors generating dropouts from school through these methods. We were, however, able to examine this in more depth in the personal interviews which suggested at least two things:

First, although those indicating work as a reason for leaving school were not inconsiderable in number and proportion, the financial reason for dropping out is apparently less important than is commonly supposed. It is true that the years covered by these surveys represented a period of generally high levels of economic activity, but none of the places included were by any means areas of labor shortage—in some the case was quite the opposite. The lesser importance of the economic reason for dropping out is apparently confirmed by some of the ongoing studies of the Office of Education.

Second, dissatisfaction with school (adverse school experience) was the single most important rationalization for leaving school. In further interviews with these boys and girls comparatively few expressed any opinion on how school could have been more useful. Among those who did, however, about a third of the boys and about half the girls asked for more vocational counseling. "A better curriculum" and "better teachers" were among the more preponderant suggestions. We will comment on this later on.

5. Turning now to the subsequent experiences of school leavers after exiting from the educational system, we find first that working and looking for work played their expected significant role. Just about every boy—be he dropout or graduate—entered the labor force. Girl graduates also had very high labor market participation: anywhere from 85 to 95 out of every 100 of these girls (depending on the area) were in the work force. The only group which differed significantly from this pattern were the girl dropouts—about one in three did not enter the labor force at all. The reason for their lower labor market activity may have been the higher marriage rate among them, as can be seen from the following summary:

	Boys		*Girls*	
	Graduates	*Dropouts*	*Graduates*	*Dropouts*
Married at time of interview, %	19	20	45	56

Leaving out for the moment the kinds of jobs these people got and their subsequent employment and unemployment experience, it is of some interest to note that the school leavers did find jobs with almost startling promptness once they began to look for work. Seven out of every 10 boys—dropouts or graduates—got work within a month after beginning to look. The girls did even better: almost eight out of every 10—again, whether graduate or dropout—began working within a month after their initial search for employment.

6. From then on out, however, the experiences of the high school graduate and the dropout begin to contrast rather sharply.

The first important difference that emerges relates to the kind of job obtained. In fact, among the girls the contrast is very pointed and marked. Girl graduates gen-

erally obtained employment in the white collar clerical fields—especially as stenographers, typists, and bookkeepers; girl dropouts concentrated in sales and such service jobs as waitresses.

	Occupation of First Job	
	Girl Graduates, %	*Girl Dropouts, %*
Clerical	64	15
Sales	20	45
Waitresses	10	18
Unskilled labor	2	10
All other	4	12

Thus, the proportion of girl graduates in clerical jobs was more than quadruple that among the dropouts, while the proportion among dropouts in the sales field and such areas as unskilled labor and waitress was very much higher than among the girl graduates.

The contrasting labor market experience among these girls is strongly related to the kind of training received in the high school. In fact, our findings underscore again that for girl school leavers, completion of high school makes a clear cut difference. The commercial courses which the girl graduates were able to pursue and complete (in contrast to the girl dropouts) prepared them to meet the job needs of their communities in what is and has been for some time, of course, a shortage field.

No such unequivocal statement can be made for the boys, however. A somewhat bigger proportion of the boy dropouts went into various unskilled jobs in the factory, as laborers, as filling station operators, etc., than did the graduates. About 37 per cent of the boy dropouts—more than one in three—entered into these fields as their first jobs as against 28 per cent for the boy graduates. Roughly the same proportions—13 per cent for dropouts and 15 per cent for graduates—entered sales jobs and the rest were scattered among various clerical and semi-skilled work.

In terms of the relationship between high school training and subsequent job experience, there was little if any among the boys in contrast to the girls. While most boys did have some introduction to vocational courses such as shop, metalworking, welding, woodworking, mechanical drawing, printing, auto mechanics, etc., the proportions which took any extended sequence of training in these areas were comparatively few among the graduates and even rarer among the dropouts.

It should be recalled that these findings refer to the *first* job held by these boys; other data, of course, reveal that significant differences in occupational status between high school graduates and dropouts do develop as time goes on. Many counselors, however, can attest the relative importance assigned to the facts of immediate experience as against long-run considerations among young persons in the guidance process.

Generally speaking, however, the graduate did much better in terms of earnings than did the dropout. Among the boys, we found that the proportion earning less than $40.00 a week was 16 per cent among the dropouts, 4 per cent among the graduates. Thus, four times as many dropouts as graduates were found to be at the lower end of the wage scale. On the other hand, the proportion earning $80.00 a week or more was 20 per cent among the dropouts, 31 per cent among the graduates—about one and one-half times as great among the latter than the former at the upper end of the wage scale.

As is usually the case, earnings were generally lower among the girls than the boys, but the graduate-dropout differential was still as strong. Thus, 21 per cent of the girl dropouts were making less than $30.00 a week—three and one half times the proportion (6 per cent) earning this amount among the graduates. On the other hand, about twice as many girl graduates than dropouts (19 per cent vs. 9 per cent) were earning $60.00 a week or more.

7. Finally, perhaps the sharpest difference of all among graduates and dropouts was found in the matter of unemployment. We found the following rates of unemployment among the school leavers in the various areas at the time of our interviews:

Per Cent Unemployed at Time of Interview

Areas	Boys		Girls	
	Graduates	Dropouts	Graduates	Dropouts
1	4	22	5	26
2	3	27	5	35
3	8	24	7	35
4	9	18	12	50
5	5	10	3	12
6	8	25	8	35
7	8	13	1	10

This summary table speaks for itself.

In some of the areas we were able to probe more deeply into the unemployment experience of these boys and girls and found, for example, that the boy dropouts were averaging *triple* the amount of unemployment since leaving school than the boy graduates. While the boy graduates averaged from about 5 per cent to 8 per cent of the time since leaving school as unemployed workers, the corresponding proportions ranged from 13 per cent to 20 per cent among the dropouts. Thus, in terms of rates of unemployment, spells of unemployment and total time since leaving school spent as an unemployed worker, the dropouts had a much worse record than the graduates.

Implications

With this as factual background, we turn now to a brief discussion of some of the implications of our findings:

1. First, it is clear—as we already indicated—that dropouts do *not* form a neat homogeneous group of girls and boys with their own unique set of problems. Dropouts, like other school leavers, school leavers like school stayers, are apparently characterized by innumerable individual differences: some do have low IQ's; but others are well up on the IQ scale. Some do have severe family and personal problems; others do not. Some make very poor adjustments in the world of work; others do very well indeed in the American labor market. While we may generalize concerning their behavior and their characteristics, just as we do for any other population group, the chances are that we can make much better progress in dealing with the forces generated by early exits from a formal educational setting if we approach these boys and girls the same way we try to deal with all the rest—each as an individual with his or her own interests, talents, aptitudes, etc.

2. This leads us to our second point—of considerable relevance to the guidance and counseling function itself. It is traditional in this country to count the dropout as a charge against the high school for the young person usually leaves the school system from the secondary school. Yet, our experience with these boys and girls points to this: that the problems which finally result in a dropout begin, and are quite overt, way back in the elementary grades. In fact, it is quite early in grade school that many of the potential dropouts begin to fall behind in their scholastic achievements and this results in the retardation we discussed previously.

These results suggest that perhaps some of our occupational education and guidance might begin much sooner than it does now. We teach a young person to read and spell in the elementary grades before we present him with the "Lady of the Lake" as an assignment in high school. We teach the young person adding, subtracting, and the rest of the arithmetical operations in elementary school before we present him with a high school problem in algebra. Perhaps we should also develop attitudes and information orienting the young person to such environmental forces as the world of work in the grades before presenting him with formal guidance programs at the high school level. These thoughts suggest that the guidance function itself—as indeed it already is in many school systems—might also become more and more a developmental process beginning down in the grades instead of a discrete one which commences at some arbitrary chronological age or school year.

Dr. Conant's very first recommendation in his recent report [3] calling for the development of guidance and counseling at the preseconday school level is, of course, very much in accord with this hypothesis. The

practical consideration, as shown by our findings, that a significant part of the school population (and one which apparently may need it most and commented on the fact they indeed missed it) does not even reach the point where a counseling service is now provided is also a factor to be reckoned with.

There are other implications for guidance that the reader may find suggested by some of the survey findings. In working with individual boys and girls in terms of "staying in school," some of the data showing the marked differences in labor market adjustment between the graduate and dropout may be relevant. Some of these differences, however, work out and become evident only in the long run. This suggests the great importance of emphasizing what may be the more difficult-to-get-across longer range aspects of career guidance, if the young person is to get some meaningful perspective on the relationship between education and employment.

3. As we have already indicated, most of the dropouts expressed some dissatisfaction with the school programs available to them. These expressions of dissatisfaction may be, at least in part, rationalizations of young people because of their very action in leaving school. But these responses were prevalent and consistent enough to warrant the suggestion that it may be worthwhile to take a hard look at the curricula available for persons such as these. Is it possible to design courses of instruction which can hold the interest and be of substantive value to at least some of the young people who do not make headway within existing practice? Is it possible to offer an even broader choice of educational avenues down which this kind of high school student can move with dignity? The fact that many dropouts do return after several years' absence and from the vantage point of hard out-of-school experience, in search of specific courses which they consider of particular value in advancing them in their career development, points to the possible rewards we might reap from such a course of action.

In our own surveys, about one in 20 dropouts took or had plans for taking more training. Interestingly enough, these boys and girls tended to select those courses which might eventually lead to a high school diploma.

One other observation can be made here which may be relevant to the point we are discussing. This relates to the consideration of getting some training through work while going to school. We found in our surveys—as is, of course, true nationally [4]—that substantial proportions of the students worked while still in high school. There was no distinction in the types of jobs held while still in school between those who eventually graduated and those who dropped out before graduating. Boys generally worked at common labor jobs, as sales clerks, and at filling stations, and, in one of the areas, in agriculture. Sales clerk and waitress jobs were most commonly held by the girls while still in school, irrespective of whether they became graduates or dropouts.

These were jobs which students obtained on their own and were not part of any school sponsored work programs where the job selections might have been made in a manner possibly more appropriate to the individual's needs and prognosis for the future. We found the students rather negative about the value of their work experience while in school. A majority of both girls and boys of both graduates and dropouts said that their work experience while in school did not help them in getting jobs later on. Incidentally, a majority also said that their earnings were not a factor in helping them stay in school. It should be emphasized that these are the opinions expressed by the boys and girls themselves.

4. Finally, some of our findings are relevant to the manpower position of the U. S. As we have already indicated, it is doubtful whether the dropouts, and perhaps even many of the high school graduates, represented a strategic loss of potentially college trained personnel. This is not true, however, in relation to our manpower needs for trained skilled workers. The evidence from these surveys at least warrants the suggestion that a good share of the dropouts, for example, might have made the grade as skilled, highly trained blue collar workers—

if they had stayed in high school until graduation and had thus become eligible for training programs in these fields. Skilled labor, becoming increasingly complex as it is, is more and more requiring minimum levels of educational attainment. For instance, the Department of Labor currently lists 60 skills which are in short supply and each of them requires at least a high school education.

Here then is another area where the guidance and counseling function in education may be able to stimulate, motivate, and inform—in relation to the critical importance of the development of a productive skill, in relation to the long range needs in the skilled manpower sector of the American economy.

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1. The areas included, the institutions conducting the surveys, and the principal investigators were: Providence, R. I.: Public School System of Providence, Department of Guidance and Placement, Mary Basso, Director; Utica, N. Y.: Cornell University, School of Industrial Relations, Prof. Leonard Adams; Harrison County, W. Va.: West Virginia University, School of Industrial Relations, Prof. Gerald Somers; Port Huron & Saginaw, Mich.: University of Michigan, School of Education, Prof. S. C. Hulslander; Phoenix, Ariz.: Arizona State College, School of Education, Prof. R. Baker & Prof. W. B. Abraham; Evansville, Ind.: Evansville College, Dean Long, Vice-President.
2. Bernert, Elizabeth. *America's children*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1958.
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4. See, for example, Employment of students and other young persons: 1957. Current Population Reports, Labor Force Series P-50, No. 83. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Bureau of Census, April, 1958.

OVR GRANTS FINANCE TWO REHABILITATION PROGRAMS

The Rehabilitation Institute of Southern Illinois University, second largest of the nation's 33 rehabilitation training programs, has received $127,954 in grants from the U. S. Office of Vocational Rehabilitation to finance two programs during a one-year period beginning September 1. Most of the funds will be used to continue the Institute's two-year graduate program for training counselors for the handicapped, according to Dr. Guy A. Renzaglia, director. The other program provides three six-week short courses per year to teach counselors how to develop employment opportunities in competitive occupations for the blind. In both programs, the funds will be used for teaching and administrative expenses and for trainee stipends.

Effects of Special Attention Upon Potentially Superior Freshman Students

LOUIS C. STAMATAKOS and ROBERT H. SHAFFER

In 1935, Wrenn [*16*], in a study of high intelligence students, strongly urged college and university educators to concern themselves with the great number of superior students who were achieving well below their measured academic potential. Wrenn recommended that universities should indicate to these students at the outset of their college careers that (1) they "are expected to maintain higher standards than what is represented by the university average," (2) "the university has an obligation to analyze and clarify the habits of work of this group of potentially superior students, by training in reading and other study habits," and (3) "the university provide honors courses and subject-matter stimulation for these students."

Twenty-two years later, Waggoner [*14*] found that generally very little special effort was being made in the large state universities to stimulate or challenge the superior student to make full use of his intellectual ability or to assist him with his problems.

Great investments have been made in the education of potentially superior students by businesses, civic organizations, state and federal governments, and colleges and universities in the form of scholarships, grants, gifts, awards, honors courses, and the like. It has been tacitly assumed that these investments will result in superior academic and leadership achievement. However, recent investigators have found, as Wrenn did, that an alarming number of these students do not achieve the high scholarship and leadership their potential would warrant [*4, 5, 15*]. It also has been found that many of these students have problems in the areas of study habits, academic and vocational adjustment, self-appraisal, and personal recognition [*3, 9, 12*], and that on the large campuses especially many of these problems are usually unattended or ignored by the faculty and staff [*14*].

If superior students are to develop to their maximum academic and leadership potential, it would seem logical for faculties, staffs, and personnel workers of colleges and universities to make every effort possible to determine the best methods of assisting and stimulating these students at the very outset of their college careers.

At this point it is interesting to note the effects of attention upon the productivity of the industrial worker. Roethlisberger [*10*] discussed at great length the famous Western Electric Hawthorne Plant Experiments conducted during the late 1920's. In brief, the experiments were conducted to determine what quantity and quality of illumination and other factors would lead to higher and more efficient production on the part of workers. The experiments were planned and supervised in a scientific manner by experienced investigators. Control groups and experimental groups were isolated in separate rooms in order to eliminate any extraneous variables and were closely observed at all times. The lighting was increased in the experimental room while it was kept constant in the control room. Surprisingly, production increased in both rooms! The experiment was continued, but the light decreased in the experimental room while kept constant in the control room. The production rate went up instead of down as expected and, surprisingly, the production rate also increased in the control room.

LOUIS C. STAMATAKOS is Dean of Men and Assistant Professor at the University of Wisconsin—Milwaukee, and ROBERT H. SHAFFER is Dean of Students at Indiana University, Bloomington.

This article reports the essential elements of the senior writer's doctoral thesis done under the direction of Robert H. Shaffer.

The results of this experiment seemed to indicate that production rates increased as long as people were being asked for their cooperation and were also receiving attention regardless of the form in which this attention was given. The authors felt that the Western Electric Experiments could have definite implications for educators and led the authors to believe that superior students, in an analogous manner, could possibly show greater achievement with induced attention.

Problem

The problem of this study was to investigate the effects of three kinds of attention upon (1) the academic achievement and (2) the extracurricular participation of four groups of potentially superior freshman women students. The aim of this research was an attempt to ascertain: (1) whether potentially superior students receiving personalized attention and correspondence from the faculty, staff, and administration of the university would exceed significantly in academic achievement and extracurricular participation those students who received only recognition and correspondence; (2) whether potentially superior students receiving recognition and correspondence would exceed significantly in academic achievement and extracurricular participation those students who received very little recognition and correspondence; and (3) whether potentially superior students who received very little recognition and correspondence would exceed significantly the academic achievement and extracurricular participation of those students who received neither personalized attention nor correspondence.

Procedure

Four groups of freshman female students residing in the Indiana University Women's Residence Halls and scoring at or above the 85th percentile on the ACE total score were selected to participate in this study. A total of 124 students fitting these criteria were randomly assigned to four groups of 31 students each. The groups were entitled Experimental, Correspondence, Hawthorne (named after the Western Electric Hawthorne Plant experiments), and Control with respect to the nature and extent of differential treatment each was to receive during the first semester 1957–1958.

Letters, lectures, banquet speakers, reprints, and materials arranged for and utilized in this study for the three groups were selected because of their appropriateness to student needs, interests, and problems, and general educational and orientation value. A great amount of care was taken to select materials which would incite intellectual curiosity and assist in the broadening of intellectual horizons. Approximately 30 appropriate pamphlets, articles, reprints, and banquet speakers were acquired to fulfill the following four established catagories: "Academic Stimulation and General Philosophy," Extracurricular Participation and Leadership," "General Orientation to College," and "Career Planning and Philosophy." A few examples of the lectures and materials are: *Man's Place in Living Nature,* by Hermann J. Muller [*8*], "Shakespeare for Moderns," by J. W. Ashton [*1*], "The Future of Man," by Bertrand Russell [*11*], "How to Stay in College," by Robert U. Jameson [*6*], "The Marriage Trap," by Kate H. Mueller [*7*], *How to get the Most Out of Your Textbooks,* by Robert M. Bear [*2*], and "The Economy in 1970," by Robert C. Turner [*13*].

At the beginning of and periodically throughout the first semester the Experimental group received personalized attention and concern from the faculty, staff, and administration of the University in the form of: (1) five special lecture programs which dealt with the topics of leadership, extracurricular activities, study habits, taking lecture notes, examination preparation, and the use of library facilities; (2) five special banquets featuring outstanding faculty members of the University who spoke on topics in the areas of philosophy and science, literature, education, economics, and marriage and careers; (3) personal letters of welcome and letters of invitation to participate in this special program from the dean of students; (4) structured monthly personal counseling interviews with dormitory

counselors, and counseling interviews with the counselors of the University General Counseling Office; and (5) a series of 16 selected reprints which covered the general areas of the aforementioned categories.

During this same period of time, students in the Correspondence group received: (1) letters similar to those of the Experimental group from the dean of students; (2) the same series of selected reprints sent to the Experimental group; (3) copies of banquet speeches given at the Experimental group programs; and (4) copies of all other materials received by the Experimental group. The Correspondence group received essentially the same treatment, with the exception of personalized counseling and participation programs, as did the Experimental group, only in correspondence form.

During the semester, the Hawthorne group received three letters from the Office of the Dean of Students, the first of which welcomed them to the University, the second, recognizing their superior potential and asking for their cooperation in occasionally evaluating their progress, and the third letter, recognizing their academic progress at mid-semester.

The Control group was established for the purposes of control and received no personalized attention or concern during this period of time.

At the end of the fall semester, the programs for the Experimental and Correspondence groups were terminated and evaluation forms sent to students in each group for their comments, criticisms, and recommendations as to the programs, reprints, materials, and attention they had received. Evaluation forms were completed and returned by all student participants in the Experimental group and from 30 of the 31 students in the Correspondence group.

Counselors in the Women's Residence Halls submitted counseling interview forms and activities participation check sheets completed for the students in the Experimental group and activities participation check sheets completed for students in the Correspondence, Hawthorne, and Control groups. Grade reports for students in the four groups for both semesters were secured from the Office of the Registrar.

Findings

Upon collection of data, an analysis was made of the common characteristics of the four groups.

The analysis revealed the following: (1) No significant differences, at the 5 per cent level of confidence, between group mean ACE scores. The random assignment therefore yielded groups of approximately equal ability. (2) The four groups were also very similar with respect to age, number of scholarships, and amount of money in scholarships. All students in this study had graduated in the upper half of their high school graduating class and a great number of them had achieved valedictorian and salutatorian honors. Although groups were assigned an equal number of students at the outset of the study, three students had withdrawn by the end of the school year.

TABLE 1

Selected Characteristics of Students in the Experimental, Hawthorne, Correspondence, and Control Groups

Group	*Number in Each Group*	*Average Age*	*Average ACE Raw Score*	*Number of Scholarships**	*Average Number of Scholarships*	*Average Amount of Scholarships*
Experimental	30	17.06	142.61	27	0.87	$165.97
Correspondence	31	17.26	141.32	21	0.68	109.80
Hawthorne	30	17.29	144.52	26	0.87	139.35
Control	30	17.35	142.00	24	0.80	111.94

* More than one scholarship may be held by one student.

Despite these withdrawals the sizes of the groups remained relatively equal.

One of the major objectives of this study was to determine the influence of differential methods of attention upon the academic achievement of the various groups. In determining this influence, a *t* test of significance was applied to the mean grade point averages of the groups and to the number and quality points of activities in which each group had participated.

Although many educators have hypothesized that benefits derived from differential treatment of a personalized nature, such as that used in this study, should influence behavior in academic areas, the findings as reported in TABLE 2 reveal that no significant measurable differences in group academic behavior at the 5 per cent level of confidence could be directly attributed to various methodological procedures. As can be seen, the Correspondence group achieved the highest grade point average, the Hawthorne and Control groups tied for second place, and the Experimental group ranked lowest.

In the area of activities, the only significant difference that was found was between the Correspondence and Control groups, 2.02, with the Correspondence group achieving a significantly higher mean number of activities. The difference between the Correspondence and Experimental groups was large, but not significant. There were no significant differences between any of the groups in the quality of activities in which they had participated. However, it must be pointed out that the Hawthorne and Correspondence groups, in that order, ranked highest, and the Experimental and Control the lowest in this area of performance.

An analysis was made of student evaluations of programs in which they had participated and materials and treatment they had received. This analysis revealed the following results:

1. Students in the Experimental group:
   a. were generally pleased and many were enthusiastic with the entire program
   b. rated highest personal counseling and the reprint articles and banquet programs which dealt with college freshman problems and college women, and rated lowest the articles and reprints of educational or philosophical significance
   c. indicated that the programs should be made available to all students of high ability

TABLE 2

Means and *t* Ratios of the Grade Point Averages, Activities, and Activity Points Earned by the Experimental, Correspondence, Hawthorne, and Control Groups

Group	G. P. A.*		Activities		Activity Points	
	$\bar{X}$*	*t**	$\bar{X}$	*t*	$\bar{X}$	*t*
Experimental	1.93	0.67	1.77	1.66	12.97	1.16
Correspondence	2.01		2.55		16.87	
Experimental	1.93	0.06	1.77	0.80	12.97	1.35
Hawthorne	1.94		2.20		18.60	
Experimental	1.93	0.06	1.77	0.39	12.97	0.62
Control	1.94		1.60		10.87	
Correspondence	2.01	0.48	2.55	0.60	16.87	0.41
Hawthorne	1.94		2.20		18.60	
Correspondence	2.01	0.48	2.55	2.02*	16.87	1.77
Control	1.94		1.60		10.87	
Hawthorne	1.94	0	2.20	1.09	18.60	1.81
Control	1.94		1.60		10.87	

* G.P.A. equals grade point average, $\bar{X}$ equals mean, *t* equals *t* ratio, * equals significant difference at the 5 per cent level of confidence, with 60 degrees of freedom, when *t* equals 2.00 or more.

d. with the exception of one student, indicated that they would continue to participate if the programs were continued.

2. Students in the Correspondence group:
a. felt that the articles they had received were appropriate and of value to them as freshmen
b. rated highest the reprint articles dealing with college freshman problems and college women, and lowest the articles of educational or philosophical significance
c. felt a need for personal assistance and vocational counseling, and more attention from their teachers
d. expressed a desire for a group composed of those receiving similar materials for the purposes of discussion
e. generally recommended that the program be continued.

Conclusions

From the findings of this investigation, it is noted that on the basis of one academic year the differential treatment given to the four groups of students did not produce any significant differences in academic achievement and extracurricular participation. Although there was a significant difference between the Correspondence and Control groups in the number of activities in which they had participated, there was no general pattern indicating that the differential treatment each group received was responsible for the difference.

These findings appear to throw some doubt on many of the presently accepted methods of stimulating superior achievement. Although many educators strongly support such methods of stimulation as honors programs, enrichment, and personalized attention, there appears to be a paucity of experimental evidence proving that these methods are accomplishing their aims. The evidence of the success of such programs, as presented in related literature, appears to be purely subjective in nature and based on student and faculty evaluations. In view of this lack of conclusive experimental data, the conclusions of this study cannot be said to be inimical to any otherwise proved hypotheses.

Discussion and Recommendations

Although student participants of this study stated that they felt stimulated by the programs in which they had participated and the materials they had received, and although no significant differences were found to exist between the academic achievement of the groups, caution must be exercised to prevent concluding that differences in the depth and breadth of learning beyond measurement by mere grade point averages did not exist. It also may be hypothesized that a greater length of time may be needed to change attitudes and habits that affect high academic achievement.

One of the difficulties encountered in the assessment of the accumulative effect of experimental studies of this nature is that the group approach fails to provide for individual needs. The intensity and variety of individual needs may vary to such an extent that material which may be stimulating to some students may be inhibiting to others. Perhaps a program offering alternative kinds of activities which would appeal to more individual needs may be more rewarding in terms of productive behavior.

Since students rated highest those programs and articles that pertained to college freshman problems, and lowest those programs and articles of educational and philosophical significance, it would appear reasonable to assume that freshman students are in a transition period of self-interest and express greater interest in those areas that have an immediate or present-day effect upon their lives rather than in ideas and concepts. If this assumption is valid, it would appear that the scheduling of honors programs and the like would be more effective on the sophomore level when students have passed through this period of self-interest and are ready for more mature and philosophical problems. It may also be that these student ratings are reflecting a temporary appeal and that the true influence of the more philosophical articles and programs may not be fully experienced until later on in these students' academic careers.

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TEACHERS OF OCCUPATIONS FORM ACADEMY

The Academy of Teachers of Occupations is a new organization now being formed by a group of college professors and high school counselors "to promote and improve the teaching of occupations in schools, colleges, and universities." While recognizing the importance of all other aspects of educational and vocational guidance and of emotional and social adjustment, the Academy wishes to distinguish between these other aspects of guidance and the teaching of occupations.

Proposed activities of the new organization will include the preparation and publication of periodic reviews of research and of current practice, citations for significant research and other contributions, professional meetings, and legislative activities undertaken in the interest of the teachers of occupations and their students. Active in the organization of the new group are four present and former officers of NVGA's Section on Group Methods of Presenting Occupational Information—Edward R. Cuony, Robert Hoppock, Harold Munson, and Daniel Sinick.

Information about membership requirements, dues, and application for membership may be obtained from Professor Robert Hoppock, New York University, New York 3, New York.

THE NATURE OF GUIDANCE

FRANK H. BOWLES

WE ARE ALL concerned with guidance. It is perhaps the one concern we have in common, aside from our shared belief in the iniquities of the income tax, for we are, as any group is bound to be, diverse. We are diverse in our occupations, our family lives, our financial status, our political ideas and directions. Those of us who are professional educators are divided into categories as teachers and administrators, working in a wide variety of institutions, public and private, secondary and higher. We differ with respect to our beliefs in education, perhaps particularly among the professional educators. For example, there are some who disagree violently with the kind of testing I represent, others who tolerate it, and some who favor it. The same groupings—but not the same people in the same groupings—may be found if we sample opinion on secondary school programs or college programs, or anything else connected with education. But we all believe in guidance and are concerned with it.

We all believe in guidance—that is, in the idea that the older generation has a responsibility to counsel and assist the rising generation—but it is only the idea on which we agree. We differ widely in our belief as to the nature of guidance.

To some, guidance is a matter of requirements. This school of thought believes essentially that the secondary school exists only to prepare for college and that only one form of preparation accomplishes this purpose. In such a belief, guidance is a matter of setting and checking requirements and is, therefore, largely automatic, provided only that the requirements are well and truly fixed.

Such a system is easy to administer and has the advantage of complete stability. But it is worth remembering that the ease of administration and the stability are produced by eliminating anyone who cannot or will not conform to the requirements. The years when we as a nation operated such a system—roughly from 1900 to 1930—were years when our higher education swelled as to size but grew very little in intellectual stature, while the secondary schools struggled slowly against difficulties and restrictions to create an alternative pattern of secondary education which would not be tied to college requirements.

The welling up of the demand for education which has come since 1930 has been accomplished only by the slow and sometimes painful elimination of the demand for conformity. Only as this elimination progressed was it possible for new forms of education to emerge, for new groups of students to become eligible for education, and for a new concept of education to develop in which school and college became responsible for the creation and provision of opportunity. We found it necessary to eliminate this old conformity in order that our education might keep pace with the new patterns of life that have emerged in our country and in the world during the last 30 years. These new patterns of life are far more competitive than the old and so our new education is more competitive than the old. Thus our students today compete for honors, for admission, for scholarships, and eventually for places in the professional and graduate schools or for jobs, with a fierceness which was no part of the older system. Under such circumstances, automatic guidance through requirements became impossible, and the requirements, which were the controls of education, ceased to control anything and passed into history. New requirements have appeared, but they have to do

FRANK H. BOWLES is Director of the College Entrance Examination Board, New York City.

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with dates and tests and forms. They do not control education nor pretend to. They are, in fact, merely the rules of the competition.

Limited Concepts of Guidance

There are some who view guidance as a matter of records. This view is based on the fact, empirically established and supported by ample statistics, that past academic success or failure is the best single predictor of future academic success or failure. "Best" means that if we rely on records alone, we predict performance about 60 per cent of the time. But 60 per cent correct forecast leaves 40 per cent incorrect forecast, a margin of error so large that any individual prediction based only on records may easily be wide of the mark. Those who believe in records will say that such a margin of error is due to faulty record-keeping, hence that better records covering more aspects of the individual will make better prediction possible. This is true. But it is also true that records as they become more elaborate become more and more difficult to maintain and to use, until in time they become so costly as to be insupportable or so complex as to be impossible to interpret. It is not long since such systems, very complex and very costly, were fashionable. There is no question that at the time they served a purpose and supplied the basis for serviceable guidance programs. But now, in effect, they break down of their own weight and are abandoned to crumble slowly into the dead files. There is also the fact that no system of records has yet been conceived which covers all the intricacies of the human mind or all the pertinent facts of human behavior. The record is always incomplete, and error is inherent in incompleteness.

The concept of guidance based on records is far more flexible than the concept of guidance based on fixed requirements, for it does recognize individual differences instead of trying to eliminate them. Yet it has much in common with the system of fixed requirements, for it works best in a stable system where school and college are closely linked in form, purpose, and standards. When education becomes, as ours has become, elaborate and varied as to form and purpose, and when this diversity is further complicated by the competition of the students with each other, guidance based on the arithmetic of records drifts inevitably toward uncertainty. The basic premise, that achievement predicts achievement, remains, but it is not in itself guidance.

Guidance Through Testing

There are some who view guidance as a matter of tests. This view is based on the fact that tests are measures which are designed to be independent of school work and personal judgment. Logically, therefore, test results should present a view of the individual's abilities and potentials as they really are, and enough test results should build up into a presentation of the total individual which will be so complete as to amount virtually to automatic indication of his future course.

There is much to commend this view. Tests do reveal information that school records do not, and they can be used as a kind of extra-personal judgment. Cumulatively they show trends in the development and growth of individuals, and applied to groups they give a measure of group performance that is not easily obtainable by any other method. Because of these virtues they have come into great popularity, so much so that they are now being used, possibly over-used, for just about everything.

But tests have limitations which may be overlooked in the course of admiring their neatness, exactness, and speed. One limitation is that the judgments they produce are built into them. For example, a conventional test of high school physics, however well made, does not give an adequate measure of achievement of a high school physics course such as is being produced by the Physical Science Study Committee now working at M.I.T., nor does a conventional intelligence or aptitude test give an adequate measure of an individual from a bilingual background. In both examples there are abilities and knowledge present in the group being tested that have not been

built into the test. The measure that comes out is not a true measure of the group being tested. Similarly, a test may fail to cover a wide enough range in measurement so that, as in some of the older forms of the ACE, as well as in some more recent tests, it is difficult to differentiate between students above certain ability levels. These are matters of judgment in test construction. If the judgments have been narrow, the test will be narrow.

Another limitation is that tests rely basically on measurement of language skills. By viewing mathematics as one language, physics as another, chemistry as another, social studies as another, English literature as another, and so on through the academic spectrum, and by constructing in each field an instrument which is primarily a measure of the command of its distinctive language, tests can be produced which bear almost no outward resemblance to each other because of their difference in vocabulary, yet which are based as instruments on the same concepts and methods of testing.

By combining samples of all these academic languages into one test, a measure of capacity to deal with the entire academic spectrum can be achieved. Such a test we call an aptitude test, though it is in reality a generalized achievement test.

This is not to suggest that tests should be disregarded or condemned because they rely on this language concept, for actually it has been applied to produce information of great value in guidance, selection, and placement which we have been unable to produce through any other method or approach. It is noted only that because of this limitation, tests viewed as measures are not as complete as their labels and the nature of their results may suggest.

This concept of testing through measurement of a variety of language skills was a tremendous intellectual breakthrough when it was first evolved over 60 years ago, but, although we have developed our understanding of it and refined our measurements, we have never produced another of similar magnitude.

This reliance on tests as equivalent to guidance reduces itself ultimately to another form of reliance on records. And, as indicated before, records are useful but they can never be complete. So it is with tests.

The Core of the Process

Requirements, records, and tests are not guidance but part of the raw material of guidance. Combined and evaluated, they may be built into judgment and judgments are the essence of guidance.

Three sets of judgments are basic to guidance. First and fundamental is the judgment of individual ability.

Ability, as it must be appraised for purposes of guidance, may be defined as the capacity to deal with situations beyond an individual's present experience. This capacity may be judged roughly on past performance, but the judgment must be rough because this capacity is made up of an infinite number of variables, not alike for any two people, and becoming more numerous and more unlike in the higher ranges of ability. Some of these variables we identify by name and undertake to measure directly —such traits as reading speed, memory span, clerical capacity, manual dexterity, physical characteristics. We have measures of these which work. That is, they produce consistent results related to performance.

Some we have named because we know they must exist, but we measure them indirectly if at all. These are the attributes such as associative ability which draws facts and concepts out of memory and shapes them into ideas, or the number skills which support the combination and recombination of symbols, or the linguistic skills which carry some individuals apparently almost intuitively to skill and ultimately to style in the learning and use of languages, or the skills of visualization which the artist and the architect must have, or the soaring logic that carries the mature physicist to the ultimate dimensions of matter. These are capacities we postulate but cannot prove. But though we cannot prove them, we measure them, or think we do, by inference in grades on our courses of study and our tests. At least we set up a scale so that we say that there are "reasonable probabilities"—which, by the way, is the most un-

defined phrase in academic use—that certain achievements signify the possession of certain capacities. We are trying to measure these capacities directly by ingenious testing devices, but we are limited by the fact that was mentioned earlier—that all our testing is tied to the concept of a series of academic languages, while these associative skills actually transcend the academic languages.

Then there is the whole area which we call, loosely, personality. Motivation, persistence, intellectual stamina, the ambitions of the individual, the patterns of behavior imposed upon him by his family and his community, the dampers and sanctions which suppress interests and hopes, all of these modify or strengthen the capacity to deal with situations beyond experience. We have tried to chart and measure this area but with little success. It is hard to see how, in fact, we can hope to succeed in formal measurement, for the area is so large that we never perceive, at any given time, more than a small portion of its total, and rarely do we get twice the same view of the same area. It is in this area that we actually make most of our mistakes in guidance, for personality may mask or accentuate, reveal or conceal, capacities that are part of an individual.

Judgment Beyond Records

It is probably inevitable that in our guidance work we should emphasize the measures which demonstrably predict capacity to deal with new experiences. Advice based on these measures can be given easily and may be so arranged as to be safe. For example, it is possible for a school to achieve a perfect record in college placement. The technique merely calls for a yearly winnowing of all whose records or test scores or nonconforming personalities indicate future difficulty in college entrance. This process will exclude a number who could have succeeded in college and may exclude a few who would have succeeded brilliantly. (I heard only last week of a student who graduated *magna cum laude* from an Ivy League college four years after his guidance counselor had refused to let him apply to the institution on the ground that he could not qualify.) It will also include some who fail, because the prediction was based on insufficient evidence.

By the same process, on the other end of the guidance line a college admissions officer can exclude all doubtful candidates and produce a class of superbly qualified students. But he, too, will lose students on the way and he will see others lost after they enter.

About two years ago, I had occasion to review the cases of students whom I had admitted to Columbia College who had turned out to be greatly talented. I finally boiled the list down to five concerning whom there could be no argument. When I considered the five as possible college applicants today I concluded that two of them were so far in the risk area that they would not now be admitted to any major college, that one was marginal and doubtful, and that only two were clear. I do not wish to claim credit for prescience. Others brought judgments to aid in the decisions. But the judgments had to be made, and they could have been made wrongly. It was not altogether chance that these turned out to be right.

What this urges, of course, is that guidance carries a responsibility for judgment and that judgment is not valid unless it goes beyond the record to project the individual into situations that must lie beyond the procedures of application and admission. Unless this responsibility is accepted, guidance fails before it has begun.

The second set of judgments that a guidance officer must make have to do with opportunity. These are judgments that call for knowledge of the function and structure of higher education. Such knowledge does not have to be encyclopedic. We have a thousand four-year colleges in the land, divisible into more categories than anyone can imagine. To this number we can add an equal number of junior colleges, technical institutes, and specialized schools. No one can know them all. But for purposes of guidance it is not necessary to know them all. It is necessary to know the nature of the choices that they offer.

Our choices in American education are not between large institutions and small, nor urban versus rural, nor public versus private. These are convenient terms to use as labels and descriptions, but they refer to matters other than education. The choice is, and must always be, between excellence and mediocrity. When this choice is made, other choices follow logically and sometimes easily.

On the intellectual level, excellence is marked by the capacity of an institution operating through its teachers to open the door of the mind to new ideas. Once this door is opened the process is irreversible. The individual who has experienced it has exchanged old horizons for new and never returns to the old. Such institutions are strong medicine, for their basic requirement is that the student be capable of forming and defending his own beliefs and actions. There are many in America who avoid such colleges, fearing to lose the young if their beliefs are changed.

Mediocrity, on the other hand, is characterized by the avoidance of intellectual exploration and disturbance. It may produce —in fact, each year it produces by the thousands—college graduates who are well trained and competent. In a formal sense, education under the auspices of mediocrity may be excellent education. Certainly it is an indispensable part of our concept which opens, through education, tremendous vistas of opportunity that no other country has matched.

Variety in Higher Education

Neither mediocrity nor excellence is tied to any method of instruction or form of accomplishment. Institutions of excellence may tolerate a wide range of performance, while institutions which live with mediocrity may be rigorous and demanding.

The excellence in American education is to be found distributed—and, happily, widely distributed—in a pattern of university communities. Each of such communities has as a focal point one or two universities (such as Washington University) which have their own undergraduate colleges to support their graduate, professional, and research programs, but which also draw upon a group of supporting colleges. These groupings of institutions—perhaps 30 or 40 in number—are the great central resource for professional graduate and research work in the nation. Thus, to use as an illustration a well-known pattern, Harvard, Yale, and Columbia are three major complete universities of high quality. They have superior graduate schools, all of the important professional schools, excellent libraries, and research facilities. They are located along a curving line following the coast of Long Island Sound and the North Atlantic in three well-marked units of the tremendous urban area that stretches from Boston to Baltimore. Each has its undergraduate colleges and these colleges are among the best in the land, fairly large but compact, well planned, well run. But these universities also draw heavily upon some 25 or 30 superior undergraduate colleges in New England and the Middle Atlantic States. These colleges must also be viewed as undergraduate colleges of these universities, first, because the graduate and professional schools of these three universities would shrink to a quarter of their present size if these colleges did not exist to feed them; second, because the graduates of these colleges are freely admitted to the university graduate and professional schools; and third, because these colleges depend heavily upon these universities for their teaching staffs. Together, all of these institutions, the colleges and the universities, form a university community—a nucleus of excellence.

Yet although they form a community, they are in no sense stereotyped. The colleges in this community differ in size, program, areas of major strength, the make-up of their student body, cost, and the indefinable quality which we call atmosphere. But they have in common a belief in what we call the liberal arts, an insistence on the use of intelligence, and a concept of excellence. It is on this foundation that they build their community.

This community that has been described is but one of many, each serving its region

and in some ways peculiar to its region, yet each linked to the others by the common concept of excellence.

Mediocrity in higher education as it exists in our country is not the opposite of excellence. It is merely a form of education limited in objectives, less demanding intellectually, closely related to practical goals, necessarily widely available. It has been developed largely within this century as a natural consequence of the formation of American life. We have built our society in terms of subdivision into an infinite number of specialties and required—often by law—that training programs be established for each. By so doing we have forced the creation of new programs of training. It is not to our discredit that we have formed these programs into the semblance of higher education and placed them within the framework of our colleges and universities instead of placing them, as has been done in other countries, in separate categories. In fact, by so doing we have created a total system of higher education which is tremendously accessible. It is easy to enter; it operates on many standards, hence provides each student an opportunity to work to the full extent of his ability, yet does not as a system interfere with the pursuit of excellence should the student elect this option, nor with the pursuit of mediocrity should this be the student's choice. There may be many things about this system about which there can be complaint, but neither its diversity nor its offerings of opportunity are among them.

The appraisal of opportunity is essentially the problem of differentiating between excellence and mediocrity. The problem is difficult because the system of higher education is tremendously complex and no single clue or set of clues operates with respect to all institutions. For example, it might be postulated that institutions of quality must necessarily require entrance examinations in order to select their students, yet the universities of Michigan and of California have working arrangements with the high schools of their states which bring them remarkably well-selected classes without entrance examinations. Or it might be postulated that quality cannot be achieved in a college without dormitories and without the amenities of student life, but the College of the City of New York has never had either and yet has maintained an awesome reputation for quality for nearly 100 years. It might be held that no large college can really achieve true quality, yet Harvard College with 4,000 students is one of the largest in the country, and even Brown and Columbia, the smallest of the Ivy League colleges with about 2,300 students, are sizable as undergraduate colleges go. Some believe that co-education is inimical to scholarship and hard work, but Swarthmore, Reed, Oberlin, Carleton, and Middlebury, among many others, prove this to be nonsense. The list could be multiplied indefinitely but the point is clear. Excellence does not depend upon size or wealth, or facilities or amenities.

Perhaps the only factor that really serves to set excellence aside and differentiate it from mediocrity is the sense of continuing expectation that students will work to and, if possible, beyond their capacity. The heartfelt remark of the M.I.T. student that the freshman year at M.I.T. is like trying to get a drink of water from a fire hose illustrates the expectation.

In a sense, it is not necessary that the guidance officer be able to type and describe each institution with which he deals. The important thing is that he must understand the difference between excellence and mediocrity. If he does and can communicate it to his pupils and their parents, he discharges his second great responsibility as a guidance officer.

The "College Sweepstakes"

The final point to discuss deals with the guidance officer in relation to college admission.

The business of college admission is getting dangerously close to being a travesty on education. The operation of what one admissions officer has called the college sweepstakes reminds me of nothing so much as a football team. In this simile, the guidance officer is the coach, the candi-

dates are the players, the parents take the place of the alumni football committee breathing down the coach's neck, the unsuspected genius who wins the school's only National Merit is the equivalent of the substitute who recovers a fumble for the winning touchdown, the school as always is the cheering section, and the graduation exercises at which all scholarship grants, multiplied by four and totaled, are announced, is the equivalent of the annual football dinner. All the familiar problems of material, of coaching, of strategy and tactics, are to be found in college admission, including the ever-present possibility that someone will be fired if the season turns out poorly.

I will not labor the simile further, but I must pursue my comments to the extent of saying that I can no longer keep up with the intricacies of the rules that are constantly devised to keep up with the swelling numbers. There are more admissions plans which are not admissions plans at all but merely different time schedules than can be counted, and many more than I can keep track of. It may be that the latest schedules which go deeply into the junior year can be managed to produce real educational values, but from the way in which colleges are moving into the early acceptance pattern, it seems reasonably certain that the values will be lost in a scramble for students which has merely been moved one year earlier. Perhaps ultimately we shall develop a test for parents on which to base prenatal admission. In fact, I am almost afraid to make the suggestion for fear someone will arrange a foundation grant for its support.

I have come to the conclusion that colleges cherish rather than disapprove of multiple applications, perhaps because each college hopes secretly that all of its applicants are really first-choice applicants. Certainly, there are many mechanisms to discourage hopeless and doubtful candidates, but, so far as I know, all such mechanisms are rusting from lack of use.

The only real hope I have of seeing the application frenzy reduced lies in the possibility that colleges will recognize the situation as chaotic and take the lead in establishing self-denying ordinances which will produce a return to sanity and order. The only other possibility of solution lies in the fact that continuing tuition increases will begin to shift the pressures of candidates, but this is not a solution that we should care to contemplate.

With these strongly felt remarks out of the way, I can now go to the discussion of the role of the guidance officer in matching ability and opportunity—in other words, his role in college entrance.

In college admissions operations, the guidance officer, whether he likes it or not, becomes the personification of secondary education. The same thing, of course, is true of college admissions officers in their relation to higher education and this personification accounts for much of the ambivalence of the public toward education, as well as for some of the wariness with which schools and colleges regard each other.

Pupils, Parents, and Public

Because the guidance officer is the public representative of his school in its most important single activity—the preparation of students for college admission—he can do his task effectively only if the public understands what he is trying to do. This understanding must include an understanding of the fact that he is dealing with at least three publics—one, the students who are his advisees; another, the parents of his advisees; and the third, the community as a whole. Thus, he must give direct advice and assistance to his advisees, must explain his actions and gain the approval of the parents of his advisees, and must be ready at all times to issue a report of progress to his community. Unless all of these tasks are understood and accomplished, there is always the grim possibility that the community may be swept by hysteria and the school damaged by ill-advised community actions. I have known of two cases during the past year in which community groups have undertaken independent investigations of the conduct of college preparation in their schools because of their

impression, concealed under polite words, that they were not getting what they were paying for. Such dissatisfaction is always latent in any community and comes to the surface all too easily when there is lack of information.

This problem of communication is a terribly serious one and will become more so. It would be an excellent idea if the guidance officers took a leaf from the books of some of our most successful admissions officers and undertook the annual preparation of a report to the community on the problems and accomplishments of the year, recording not only the record of admissions but the record of successful admissions with success defined in terms of student successes and failures in college. Unless some such report is made, the community comes to adopt a false standard of success based on dollar amounts of scholarships received and numbers of tenders of admission. They are interesting statistics but they do not reflect the real accomplishment and can, if they are overstressed, lead to tension and hysteria.

One of the most important decisions the guidance officer and the admissions officers must make has to do with unusual cases. Every man and woman who has worked with students knows that there are cases when the rules must be thrown away, but I fear that we are approaching a time when the need for near perfect records may suppress the need to act upon judgment and belief. I have recently seen admission records showing an almost perfect prediction of college success with as low as one per cent of failure during the freshman year. In one sense this is praiseworthy, but I cannot help wondering if it does not mean that all of the non-conforming individuals have been eliminated as risks. I would rather see a higher failure rate if I knew that it meant that the college had taken some chances. Education is adventure of the mind, or should be, and I would like to see some of the spirit of adventure carried into the minds of guidance officers and admissions officers. If we fail to do this, we may achieve mediocrity even in the midst of excellence, and adventure will become part of our history instead of part of our future.

This has been a long and sometimes discursive survey of the human problems of guidance and of some of the factors which produce these problems. These problems are the product of the times in which we live. We have revolutionized our educational system within our own lifetime by equating education to opportunity and ability rather than to position and privilege. The readjustments which follow upon revolution are not easy to make, and in the making it is sometimes easy to cast them into rules and formulas which view the group, not the individual, as the unit of society. Yet, if we accept such a view, our revolution will fail and privilege will once again become the determinant.

We are in a time when guidance has an importance it has never had before and this is a good sign, for guidance is not a science, but, like medicine, a humane and healing art without which no society can retain its humanity. Within this concept lies the essence of guidance—the ability, the knowledge, and the courage to apply judgment in seeking the answers to human problems.

COMMENTS

DR. BOWLES' formula of guidance, much like Dr. Conant's, is based upon the limiting concept of identification, selection, and assignment, in school curricula, of students with varying academic aptitudes and interests. This formula formerly was called educational guidance and, unfortunately, the concept has been neglected in current literature, except for such writers as Rothney. There is indeed sound justification for re-emphasizing this part of the guidance program. Nonetheless, to read Dr. Bowles' statement and to compare it to Dr. Conant's recent presentation is to per-

ceive how far modern counseling has moved from this early formulation of educational guidance.

As a statement of the role of guidance in the admission, selection, and assignment of students to various curricula, this one is adequate. But one regrets that the rich elaboration of the concept of counseling, now developed beyond the earlier concept of guidance, is not currently incorporated in restatements of current educational reform, particularly those concerned with high aptitude students. It is as though Henry Murray had not written *Explorations of Personality* or Robert Winthrop White had not identified *Lives in Progress* or, indeed, that Otto Butz had not written about *The Unsilent Generation*. Rich understanding, to be sure not achieved entirely through measurement, of the dynamic development of adolescent personalities in the college environment is missing from the current renaissance of the deplorably neglected field of educational guidance. One would hope that the current reformation of educational guidance would be interfused with our richer and more adequate understanding of many of the subtleties of personal development, especially as it takes place in the community of scholars. Everywhere we need to put aside the earlier model of educational guidance, patterned as it was after the program of personnel officers in an industrial institution. That model is not appropriate or adequate for a community of scholars dedicated to the full, rich development of humane lives.—EDMUND G. WILLIAMSON, *Dean of Students, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.*

REHABILITATION SYMPOSIUM TO BE HELD IN CLEVELAND

A national invitational symposium on "Behavioral Research in the Rehabilitation of the Physically Disabled" has been announced by Western Reserve University and Highland View Hospital, Cleveland, Ohio. Supported by a grant from the U. S. Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, the symposium will be held at Highland View on November 4–6, 1959, with proceedings and results to be published in 1960. Inquiries about this project should be addressed to The Cleveland Symposium, Barbara Kunz, Project Coordinator, Highland View Hospital, 3901 Ireland Drive, Cleveland 22, Ohio.

The Ordering of Occupational Values By High School Freshmen and Seniors

W. J. DIPBOYE and W. F. ANDERSON

ANY COUNSELOR, teacher, or school administrator who has attempted to provide assistance to an adolescent in the matter of selecting a career has encountered the problem of the relative values which relate to work. This has proved to be a difficult problem since little is known about the development of a value system in adolescence and the role it plays in the process of vocational choice. Ginsberg, *et al* [3], have provided us with important data regarding the time at which values regarding occupations are formed. Centers [1] found social class differences in occupational values while Singer and Stefflre [5] found differences in the values regarding work held by adolescent and adult males. Singer and Stefflre [6] also found certain sex differences in job values and desires. Dickinson [2] and Miller [4], utilizing a college population, have also studied occupational values. However, these studies provide little information regarding the ordering of these values. If professional educators are to perform a proper role in assisting young people to reach a decision, however tentative, regarding their choice of careers, it is important that some insight into this problem be gained. The values held by an individual constitute an essential and important element of his motivational structure and, if understood, can give us invaluable insights into his decision-making processes.

The present study is an attempt to add to this information by providing data regarding the occupational values held by both boys and girls in two age groups.

Procedures and Population

The subjects were 1,181 high school pupils attending schools in urban, suburban, and semi-rural areas in Central New York. Of this total, 823 (410 boys and 413 girls) were 9th grade pupils and 358 (171 boys and 187 girls) were 12th graders. This population was administered the instrument (See FIGURE 1) by teachers with whom the pupils were acquainted and who indicated that the information would be used in helping pupils make educational and vocational plans.

Analysis of Results

Sex Differences: The rankings given to the nine values for both 9th and 12th grade boys and girls are found in TABLE 1. Probably the most significant finding is the general over-all similarity in the pattern of mean rankings for boys and girls (Rho = 0.83). This finding stood out in all comparisons of boys and girls. However, when the mean rankings of the individual values for the various groups are compared, some statistically significant differences appear. Girls tended to give higher rankings than boys to the values of Prestige, Interesting Work, Working Conditions, and Relations with Others. Boys gave higher rankings to Salary, Advancement, and Independence. The differences between the two groups for the values of Security and Benefits were not statistically significant.

When 9th grade boys are compared with 9th grade girls, the same statistically significant differences appeared. In the case of 12th grade boys and girls, we find boys giving higher rankings to the values of Salary and Independence, while the girls ranked Prestige, Working Conditions, and Relations with Others higher.

When the factor of post-high school plans is involved, the mean rankings of college bound 9th grade boys differed significantly from those of 9th grade college bound girls on all values except Benefits. The boys

W. J. DIPBOYE is Associate Professor of Education at Syracuse University, Syracuse, New York, and W. F. ANDERSON is Associate Professor of Education and Psychology at Syracuse University.

FIGURE 1

Please fill in the following blanks:

NAME_____ GRADE_____ SEX_____

Do you plan to go on to school after High School (continue your education) _____ Yes _____ No

If yes, give the name or type of school you plan to attend _____
(Ex. University, Jr. College, Bus. or Tech. school)

If no, what are your plans_____

Have you made a vocational or job choice _____ Yes _____ No

If yes, what is it_____

Below is a list of things people look for when choosing a job. Decide which one you think is the most important and then place 1 in the blank opposite it. Do the same for your choices 2, 3, 4, 5, etc.; 9 would represent the thing that is of least importance to you. Be sure you have placed a number opposite each word.

_____ SECURITY (steady work, sure of job)
_____ PRESTIGE (job that is highly respected)
_____ SALARY (highly paid job)
_____ INTERESTING WORK (a job that I can enjoy)
_____ ADVANCEMENT (a job with a chance to get ahead—promotion)
_____ WORKING CONDITIONS (a job with good hours, pleasant surroundings)
_____ RELATIONS WITH OTHERS (job where I can work with people I like)
_____ INDEPENDENCE (be my own boss or work on my own)
_____ BENEFITS (vacations, social security, retirement plans)

ranked the values of Security, Salary, Advancement, and Independence higher than girls. Girls gave higher rankings to Working Conditions, Prestige, Interesting Work, and Relations with Others. All the above differences were significant at the 1 per cent level with the exception of Security. However, the order of mean rankings was highly similar for the two sexes.

The mean rankings of 12th grade college bound boys and girls differed significantly on five of the nine values. Boys gave higher rankings to Salary and Advancement, both significant at the 1 per cent level. Girls ranked Prestige, Working Conditions, and Relations with Others higher than boys. The difference on Relations with Others was significant at the 1 per cent level. Boys and girls who were not going to college were more similar in their value patterns than the college bound pupils.

Grade Differences: The data in TABLE 2 permit a comparison of the values of 9th and 12th grade pupils. These results show an even greater similarity between the responses of the pupils from the two grades than that which exists between the sexes. The differences between the means were statistically significant only on two values. Interesting Work, while ranked first by both groups, was given greater importance by the 12th graders. The 12th grade mean for the value of Advancement was significantly higher; however, this is primarily a function of the difference between the girls of the two grades.

When the groups were formed according to both grade and post-high school plans, there were relatively small differences among the groups for the individual values. Ninth and 12th grade college bound girls did not differ significantly on any of the values, while non-college bound girls differed significantly (5 per cent level) on one—Salary.

TABLE 1

The Comparisons of the Occupational Values of Girls and Boys

Values		*Total Girls N = 600*	*Total Boys N = 581*	*t*	*9th Girls N = 413*	*9th Boys N = 410*	*t*	*12th Girls N = 187*	*12th Boys N = 171*	*t*
Security	M.	3.14	2.97	..	3.05	2.94	..	3.35	3.05	..
	S.D.	2.00	1.95	1.15	1.96	1.97	0.72	2.10	1.91	1.41
Prestige	M.	6.13	6.79	*	6.11	6.77	*	6.15	6.82	*
	S.D.	2.01	2.16	5.42	2.08	2.20	4.40	1.96	2.48	2.81
Salary	M.	4.98	4.08	*	4.93	4.01	*	5.08	4.27	*
	S.D.	2.06	1.92	7.77	2.06	1.94	6.59	2.09	1.83	3.90
Interesting	M.	2.06	2..8	*	2.16	2.62	*	1.85	2.12	..
Work	S.D.	1.72	1.98	3.88	1.81	2.06	3.39	1.49	1.90	1.48
Advance-	M.	4.94	4.50	*	5.08	4.58	*	4.65	4.34	..
ment	S.D.	2.29	2.25	3.34	2.36	2.25	3.11	2.05	2.22	1.36
Working	M.	4.26	4.63	*	4.29	4.62	*	4.18	4.64	†
Conditions	S.D.	1.74	1.90	3.48	1.74	1.94	2.56	1.78	1.85	2.39
Relations	M.	4.67	5.78	*	4.67	5.75	*	4.65	5.86	*
with Others	S.D.	2.08	2.03	9.28	2.16	2.08	7.30	1.97	1.90	5.90
Inde-	M.	8.14	7.22	*	8.12	7.19	*	8.18	7.30	*
pendence	S.D.	1.68	2.43	7.54	1.66	2.34	6.56	1.77	2.50	3.80
Benefits	M.	6.67	6.52	..	6.58	6.48	..	6.84	6.63	..
	S.D.	1.66	1.89	1.44	1.79	1.89	0.78	1.49	1.84	1.18

* Difference statistically significant at 1 per cent level.

† Difference statistically significant at 5 per cent level.

NOTE: Due to the instructions employed, the lower the mean, the higher the ranking of the value.

TABLE 2

The Comparisons of the Occupational Values of 9th and 12th Grade Pupils

Values		*Total 9th Grade N = 823*	*Total 12th Grade N = 358*	*t*	*9th Boys N = 410*	*12th Boys N = 171*	*t*	*9th Girls N = 413*	*12th Girls N = 187*	*t*
Security	M.	2.98	3.20	..	2.94	3.05	..	3.05	3.35	..
	S.D.	1.97	2.03	1.72	1.97	1.91	0.63	1.96	2.10	1.71
Prestige	M.	6.44	6.47	..	6.77	6.82	..	6.11	6.15	..
	S.D.	2.08	2.25	0.22	2.20	2.48	0.23	2.08	1.96	0.23
Salary	M.	4.47	4.69	..	4.01	4.27	..	4.93	5.08	..
	S.D.	2.06	2.01	1.71	1.94	1.83	1.53	2.06	2.09	0.82
Interesting	M.	2.39	1.99	*	2.62	2.12	*	2.16	1.85	†
Work	S.D.	1.94	1.63	3.65	2.06	1.90	2.81	1.81	1.49	2.20
Advancement	M.	4.82	4.50	†	4.58	4.34	..	5.08	4.65	†
	S.D.	2.34	2.14	2.29	2.25	2.22	1.18	2.36	2.05	2.26
Working	M.	4.45	4.40	..	4.62	4.64	..	4.29	4.18	..
Conditions	S.D.	1.86	1.83	0.43	1.94	1.85	0.12	1.74	1.78	0.70
Relations	M.	5.21	5.23	..	5.75	5.86	..	4.67	4.65	..
with Others	S.D.	2.18	2.02	0.23	2.08	1.90	0.62	2.16	1.97	0.11
Inde-	M.	7.65	7.75	..	7.19	7.30	..	8.12	8.18	..
pendence	S.D.	2.14	2.23	0.71	2.34	2.50	0.49	1.66	1.77	0.39
Benefits	M.	6.53	6.74	..	6.48	6.63	..	6.58	6.84	..
	S.D.	1.83	1.66	1.93	1.89	1.84	0.89	1.79	1.49	1.85

* Difference statistically significant at the 1 per cent level.

† Difference statistically significant at the 5 per cent level.

NOTE: Due to the instructions employed, the lower the mean, the higher the ranking of the value.

Both groups of boys differed significantly on one value—Interesting Work. The mean for the 9th grade college bound boys was significantly higher (5 per cent level) than that for their 12th grade counterparts. Non-college bound boys differed in the opposite direction. That is, the 12th grade non-college bound boys were higher (5 per cent level) on Interesting Work than 9th grade boys who were not going to college.

Discussion

Both the over-all pattern of rankings by the various groups and the differences between individual mean rankings take on significance for the school counselor. For instance, the fact that all groups ranked the value of Interesting Work first, even though there were significant mean sex differences, indicates that this is a prime motivating factor in the selection of an occupation. The high ranking given to the value of Security by all groups indicates that this is another of the most important factors in the career-planning processes of high school pupils. In fact, the tendency (as seen in TABLE 1) for all groups to rank Interesting Work and Security first and second strongly suggests that these pupils, at least, are more interested in having a stable job that they can enjoy and from which they can derive some intrinsic satisfactions than they are in having a job in which there is an opportunity to work on their own with a good opportunity for advancement. Due to the limitations of the study we are unable to provide information about the factors which may have been responsible for the variance of the responses. However, it may well be that intelligence, socio-economic conditions, and personality structure have a formative influence on these sorts of occupational values.

The low ranking given by both boys and girls to the value of Independence has some possible implications of a social nature. When we compare the ranking given to Independence with the ranking given to Security we see that the subjects seem to have a greater need to be safe than to be their own boss. As expected, girls tended to place an even lower value than boys regarding Independence. An inspection of the standard deviations gives further insight into this point. The girls were relatively homogeneous regarding this value (S.D. = 1.68), while the boys were relatively homogeneous regarding this value (S.D. = 2.43). This indicates that there were some boys who ranked Independence relatively high.

The low ranking given to Benefits as opposed to the high ranking given to Security is possibly explained by the age of the subjects. That is, for high school pupils such matters as insurance, retirement benefits, and vacations have not yet entered their "life space."

The relatively small mean differences between the 9th and 12th graders would seem to indicate that occupational values are generally well formed by the time the pupil completes the 9th grade and that little change takes place during his high school career.

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Fathers' Occupations and Intelligence Level of a Homogeneous Occupational Group

RAYMOND H. HOLDEN and HENRY L. ISAKSEN

WHEN THE question is raised concerning the correlation of intellectual level with other variables, there appears to be strong evidence in the literature to support the claim that a person's intelligence is highly correlated with his own educational attainment and occupational level [1]. This, of course, implies no cause or effect relationship but only a correlation. Another interesting question presents itself: What second-order variables might be noted in the correlation with intelligence if educational attainment and occupational level were held constant? If we were to carry out an experiment designed to answer such a question, we might logically hypothesize that one important variable would be the socio-economic level of the individual, as indicated by occupation of the father. This paper describes a simple experiment which was designed to investigate the correlation between socio-economic background, as represented by father's occupation, and the intelligence of a group of people whose educational achievement and present occupations are relatively homogeneous.

The purpose of this experiment was to test the hypothesis that the occupational level of the father is related to the verbal intelligence test scores in a fairly homogeneous group of graduate students, most of whom are employed as teachers. The subjects in this study were 45 students in a graduate class in Occupational Information at Boston University School of Education in the fall of 1957. TABLE 1 gives pertinent data about the sample, including age, sex, educational level, and occupation. There were 30 males and 15 females ranging in age from 21 to 45 years. The mean age of the males was 30.7 years and the mean age of the females was 33.7 years. Eighty-eight per cent of the group were at a graduate school level of education, and 87 per cent of the group, both males and females, listed "teaching" as their occupation. Thus the group was a fairly homogeneous group with respect to educational and occupational level.

RAYMOND H. HOLDEN is a Clinical Psychologist for the Rhode Island Society for Crippled Children, and HENRY L. ISAKSEN is an Associate Professor at Boston University, Boston, Massachusetts.

The Test

The testing instrument used in this study was the Thorndike Vocabulary Test [3] which was presented in a form originated by the senior author to include the additional

TABLE 1

Composition of Sample by Sex, Age, Occupation, and Education—N = 45.

	Males	*Females*
Sex	30	15
Age		
21–25	6	3
26–30	10	4
31–35	9	1
36–40	3	3
Over 40	0	1
Not given	2	3
Education		
Graduate level	27	13
4th year college	3	2
Occupation		
Student, education	8	6
Teacher, guidance or counseling	6	1
Teacher, junior or senior high	8	2
Teacher, college	2	0
Teacher, unspecified	2	2
Army or Marine officer	2	0
Records or personnel clerk	1	1
Nurse or occupational therapist	0	2
Housewife	0	1
Not given	1	0

TABLE 2

National Occupational Levels with Corresponding Mean Vocabulary Scores and Standard Deviations Compared with Mean Vocabulary Score and Standard Deviation of the Present Study Sample.

Occupational Level		*Mean Vocabulary Score*	*Standard Deviation*
Level I	Professional (highly skilled)	14.6	2.7
Level I	*SUBJECTS IN THIS SAMPLE*	*15.5*	*3.1*
Level II	Skilled	12.0	3.1
Level III	Semi-skilled	10.3	3.1
Level IV	Unskilled	8.8	3.1

necessary identifying data about the sample described above. The test was presented to the subjects in a group testing situation. The test is very short and is usually completed in five or six minutes. It has been used by Thorndike and Gallup in a door-to-door poll of intelligence levels on a random basis throughout the whole United States [4]. This latter study is described in detail in a new book by Miner, entitled *Intelligence in the United States* [2]. The nationwide sample of 1,500 persons was matched almost identically with the total population on the basis of age, sex, race, education, marital status, religion, geographical area, employment status, and occupational classification. The results of the vocabulary test scores are definitely related, among other things, to the person's occupational level, classified by Miner into four categories or levels (Levels I, II, III, and IV).[1] The occupational levels, along with their corresponding mean vocabulary scores and standard deviations, are shown for the nationwide sample in TABLE 2, along with the mean vocabulary score and standard deviation for the subjects in the present study.

The sample of the present study, with a mean vocabulary score of 15.5 and S. D. of 3.1 compares quite favorably with the nation-wide sample of Level I occupations, in which teachers are included. (Mean score 14.6, S. D. 2.7.)

TABLE 3 shows the distribution of raw scores on the Thorndike Vocabulary Test for the subjects in the present sample. TABLE 4 shows the Occupation of Fathers of the subjects in the present sample as related to the vocabulary scores achieved by the subjects. One can see from an inspection of the data in TABLE 4 that there is a preponderance of Level III and IV paternal occupations among those who scored low on the vocabulary test (12 and 13 correct), and that Level I and II paternal occupations are related to higher vocabulary scores (16 through 20 correct).

TABLE 3

Distribution of Vocabulary Raw Scores for the Present Sample, with Mean and Standard Deviation for Males and Females Respectively.

Number of Vocabulary Words Correct	*Males*	*Females*
20	2	1
19	1	0
18	2	1
17	3	1
16	4	7
15	4	2
14	8	3
13	2	..
12	4	..
	N = 30	15
MEAN	15.2	15.9
S.D.	3.7	2.0

The question is, are these differences significant? This question was answered by splitting the vocabulary score distribution in two, and then computing a X^2 test as shown in TABLE 5. The X^2 of 4.6 with 1 degree of freedom is significant beyond

[1] The writers are aware of certain criticisms that have been brought against Miner's book and the study on which it is based. (See, for example, the review by Harold Goldstein in the *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, March, 1958, p. 504.) However, the present study would seem to further confirm the validity of one basic assumption of Miner's book.

TABLE 4

Distribution of Occupation of Fathers Including Occupational Level as Related to Actual Vocabulary Scores of Males and Females in the Present Sample.

	Vocabulary Score							
	12–13		*14–15*		*16–17*		*18–20*	
Fathers of males	Dairy worker	IV	Businessman	II	Fireman	III	Trucker	II
	Meat cutter	III	Glazier	III	Invest.		Manufacturer	I
	Farmer	III	Gardener	III	salesman	I	Electrician	II
	City worker	III	Steamfitter	II	Attorney	I	Salesman	II
	Caretaker	III	Int. decr.	II	Not given	..	P. O. clerk	II
			Machinist	II	Not given	..	Teacher	I
			Foreman	II			Attorney	I
			Salesman	II				
			Businessman	II				
			Clerk	II				
			Retired	..				
Fathers of females			Printer	II	Merchant	II	Manufacturer	I
			Foundry foreman	II	Merchant	II	Accountant	I
			Ins. agent	I	Operator	III		
			Lawyer	I	Contractor	II		
			Not given	..	Carpenter	II		
					Accountant	I		
					Accountant	I		
					Rest. owner	I		

TABLE 5

Computation of X^2

		Occupational Level of Father		
		III–IV	*I–II*	*Totals*
Actual Vocab. Scores of Subjects	16–20	2	17	19
	12–15	8	12	20
		—	—	—
TOTALS		10	29	39

$X^2 = 4.6$
d.f. = 1
$p = 0.05$

the 0.05 level, and thus we can reject the null hypothesis that there is no difference between the occupational level of fathers of subjects who earned high scores on the test and those whose scores were low.

Summary

The present paper has reported the results of an investigation of the relationship of socio-economic background, as represented by father's occupation, to the intelligence level of a group of adults who are relatively homogeneous with respect to educational achievement and occupational level. The Thorndike Vocabulary Test was presented to a homogeneous group of 45 graduate students at Boston University School of Education, most of whom are employed as teachers, and their father's occupational level was ascertained. There was a significant difference in father's occupational level between low-scoring and high-scoring subjects (X^2 significant beyond 0.05 level). Thus it is concluded that when educational and occupational level are held constant, socio-economic status, as represented by father's occupation, is a significant variable in relationship to verbal intelligence as measured by this test.

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TEST USAGE IN STATE VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION

SAMUEL J. CARPENTER, WILLIAM C. COTTLE, and GERALD W. GREEN

THERE HAVE BEEN a number of studies of guidance and counseling centers which presented descriptions of current testing practices in such centers. Darley and Marquis [3], in a study of veterans guidance centers, made a survey of the frequency of use of various tests. In a supplementary question calling for names of tests that had proved most valuable in various areas of behavior, 51 centers named a variety of tests as follows: 17 tests of general academic ability; 17 tests of educational achievement; 5 tests of vocational interest; 16 tests of personality inventories; and 30 tests of specific aptitude.

Baker and Peatman [1] reported on a study of tests used in 175 Veterans Administration Guidance Centers. An examination of their analysis indicated that the tests used most frequently were: the Kuder Preference Record (85 per cent), the Bennett Mechanical Comprehension (64 per cent), the American Council on Education Psychological Examination (54 per cent), and the Minnesota Clerical Aptitude (39 per cent). In the advisement units which responded, Baker and Peatman found that 96.5 per cent employed at least one general intelligence test; 93 per cent used an interest inventory; 83 per cent used a manual or mechanical test; 50 per cent used a personality test; and 6 per cent used a projective technique.

Berkshire and others [2] surveyed 403 guidance centers throughout the country to determine test preferences to be included in a manual of tests. They reported in the results from 290 guidance centers, each of which rated 152 tests on a check list questionnaire, that there was close agreement in the use of the most common 15 to 20 tests, but that the instruments supplementing this basic group were widely varied.

A study which incorporated the technique of categorizing and weighting the ratings was recently completed by Silvania [4]. The purpose of this study was to determine the frequency of use of various standardized psychological tests and techniques in the counseling services approved by the American Personnel and Guidance Association. The questionnaire check list consisted of 155 tests and was sent to 167 approved counseling centers. The tests most frequently used in each category are as follows: Intelligence—Wechsler Bellevue Intelligence Scale, Adult; Achievement—Stanford Achievement Test; Vocational—Minnesota Paper Form Board Test; Interest—Kuder Preference Record, Vocational; Personality—Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory; Aesthetic Judgment—Meier Art Judgment Test; and Miscellaneous—Pseudo Isochromatic Plates.

The preceding studies indicate their relationship to the present study. A search of the literature did not reveal a similar study specifically related to the field of vocational rehabilitation. The prime purpose of this study is to determine test usage activities in 90 state vocational rehabilitation agencies.

Procedure

Four questions, designed to sample information supplementary to the main study, were developed. The questions are as follows:

1. Are psychometrists used for test administration? Yes ( ) No ( )
2. Which of the following is source of test interpretation?

SAMUEL J. CARPENTER is Associate Executive Secretary of the Topeka Council of Churches, Topeka, Kansas; WILLIAM C. COTTLE is Professor of Education at the University of Kansas, Lawrence; and GERALD W. GREEN is Assistant Regional Director, Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, Region VI, Kansas City, Missouri.

a. Counselor or psychologist within agency. ( )
b. Counselor or psychologist outside of agency. ( )

3. What is the annual case load for total agency? _____

4. Does your agency feel the testing program meets its needs? Yes ( ) No ( )

The names of 123 tests were included in the questionnaire.

The 123 tests were then placed into 11 categories in alphabetical order as follows: 32 Scholastic Aptitude, 9 Multifactor, 7 Spatial Relations, 6 Clerical, 11 Mechanical, 6 Artistic, 3 Vocational, 6 Miscellaneous, 18 Achievement, 9 Interest, and 16 Personality.

The two-page questionnaire, a covering letter, and a return-addressed stamped envelope were sent to each of the 90 agencies. In an attempt to stimulate a more prompt response, each of the non-responding agencies was first sent a postal card and then a duplicate copy of the questionnaire with a return-addressed envelope.

Responses to questions one, two, and four were tabulated separately for the three different types of agencies, respectively. The number of "yes" and "no" responses to each question were separately divided by the total number of responses for that type of agency. Where parts of question number two were checked, the same procedure was followed to determine a "both" percentage. In such cases, the agency made an explanatory notation that both parts of question two were characteristic of its program. No attempt was made to tabulate responses to question number three because of the inadequate number of responses.

The standardized tests were tabulated in rank order, according to the number of times mentioned by different agencies. A ratio descriptive of use was developed. The denominator of the ratio corresponding to each test indicates the number of times that test was given a rating by agencies. The numerator of the ratio indicates the total sum of ratings given by the agencies represented in the denominator for each test. That is, if a test has a ratio of 15/5, this means that the test had a sum of ratings of 15 (on the basis of ratings from one to the highest number of tests in the category) and that five agencies used and rated the test.

The responses of three agencies did not follow the directions indicated in the questionnaire, for they checked the tests which they used with an "X." In those three cases, the total number of checks in a particular category of tests were summed. This sum was divided by two and each test in that category checked by an "X" was assigned this tie value for ranks.

Results

Seventy-eight, or 87 per cent, of the total 90 agencies returned adequately completed questionnaires. A breakdown into the three kinds of agencies responding shows that 88 per cent of the 16 combined vocational rehabilitation and blind agencies returned adequately completed questionnaires. Eighty-four per cent of the 37 general agencies returned adequately completed questionnaires and 89 per cent of the 37 separate agencies for the blind returned adequately completed questionnaires.

The results of the responses to question one showed 72 per cent of all the agencies indicated they used psychometrists for test administration. Twenty-eight per cent checked the item "no." Eighty-two per cent of the agencies for the blind checked "yes" to this question, which was the largest percentage among the three types of agencies, with 68 per cent of general agencies and 57 per cent of combined agencies marking "yes."

The responses to question number two showed that of the 78 agencies responding, 28 per cent indicated that a "counselor or psychologist within agency" did the test interpretation. Forty-four per cent checked "counselor or psychologist outside of agency," and 28 per cent indicated the use of both counselor or psychologist within and without the agencies for test interpretation. There were an insufficient number of responses to question three about the agency annual case load to warrant including them here.

Seventy-seven of the total number of agencies responded to question number four, which asked if the agency testing program met its needs. Seventy per cent checked "yes" and 30 per cent checked "no." Many of the agencies provided notations beside the "yes" check that indicated they were not complacent in responding this way. They also indicated that they were constantly looking for ways to improve their programs.

The results of the survey of tests most frequently used by state vocational rehabilitation agencies are given in TABLE 1. The tests were listed in rank order, with the test most frequently mentioned in a particular category at the top of the category and the ones with a lesser number of ratings following in order. A mean rating, derived by dividing the sum of ratings by the number of ratings, indicates the frequency of use in ratio to the number of agencies using a test. The test which received the largest number of ratings was given the highest rank in any particular category, even though its mean rating might not warrant this. In general, the lower the mean rating, the more frequently the test is used.

The mean rating indicates that the 10 most frequently used tests, by the number of agencies rating them in the scholastic aptitude category, are as follows in the order of the frequency of use: Wechsler Bellevue (Adaptation for the Blind); Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale; Wechsler Bellevue Intelligence Scale; Army General Classification Test; Army Beta (Revised); Otis General Intelligence; ACE Psychological Examination (High School and College); California Mental Maturity (Short-form); Stanford-Binet (Revised); and Ohio State Psychological Examination.

The Wechsler Bellevue (Adaptation for the Blind) was obviously used exclusively by those agencies working with blind clients. However, only 51 per cent of such agencies used the test. TABLE 1 indicates that the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale was used by more agencies, but was used less frequently as indicated by the sum of ratings it received. This is true of a number of tests in TABLE 1.

TABLE 1

Ratio of Summed Ratings of Frequency of Use by Agency to Number of State Vocational Rehabilitation Agencies in the United States Rating the Tests

*Mean** *Rating*	*Ratio†*	
SCHOLASTIC APTITUDE TESTS		
2.00	76/38	Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale
2.31	81/35	Wechsler Bellevue Intelligence Scale
1.46	39.5/27	Wechsler Bellevue (Adaptation for the Blind)‡
3.06	76.5/25	Otis General Intelligence
3.60	86.5/24	ACE Psychological Examination (H.S. and College)
2.64	47.5/18	Army General Classification Test
3.70	55.5/15	California Mental Maturity (short-form)
3.70	55.5/15	Stanford-Binet (Revised)
2.89	40.5/14	Army Beta (Revised)
4.46	62.5/14	Ohio State Psychological Examination
2.38	31/13	Otis Quick-Scoring Mental Ability
3.70	37/10	Pressey Senior Classification
2.94	23.5/8	Interim Hayes-Binet Intelligence Scale‡
5.67	34/6	Progressive Matrices (Raven)
4.00	20/5	Pressey Verification Test
5.30	26.5/5	Henmon-Nelson Mental Ability
3.50	14/4	Otis Employment
6.00	24/4	Wonderlic Personnel
3.50	7/2	Otis Classification
4.50	9/2	School and College Ability Test
6.50	13/2	Pinter General Ability
7.50	15/2	Kuhlman-Anderson Intelligence
1.00	1/1	Thurstone Mental Alertness
5.00	5/1	Army Alpha (Revised)
5.00	5/1	Personnel Classification
9.00	9/1	Leiter International Performance Scale
		Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence
		Dearborn Group Intelligence
		Miller Mental Ability
		Northwestern Intelligence Scale
		Terman Group Mental Ability
		Thorndike Intelligence
MULTIFACTOR TESTS		
Mean Rating	*Ratio*	
1.04	24/23	General Aptitude Test Battery (USES)
2.09	23/11	Differential Aptitude Tests
1.90	19/10	SRA Primary Abilities

2.71	19/7	Flanagan Aptitude Survey
2.40	12/5	California Multiple Aptitude
2.50	10/4	Chicago Primary Mental Ability
2.67	8/3	Factored Aptitude Series (Business and Industry)
2.00	4/2	Guilford-Zimmerman Aptitude Survey
		Uni-factor Test (Holzinger-Crowder)

SPECIAL APTITUDE AND ABILITY TESTS

Spatial Relations

Mean Rating	*Ratio*	
1.50	61.5/40	Purdue Peg Board
1.70	56/33	Minnesota Paper Form Board
2.75	60.5/22	Minnesota Spatial Relations
2.60	54.5/21	O'Connor Finger Dexterity
2.64	47.5/18	O'Connor Tweezer Dexterity
1.31	21/16	Purdue Peg Board (Adaptation for the Blind)‡
3.25	13/4	Wiggly Blocks

Clerical

1.34	51/38	Minnesota Clerical
1.46	41/28	General Clerical
2.25	36/16	SRA Clerical Aptitude
3.20	16/5	Seashore-Bennett Steno. Prof.
3.33	10/13	Thurstone Clerical
2.00	2/1	Turse Shorthand Aptitude

Mechanical

2.03	69/34	Penn. Bi-Manual Mechanical
1.24	33.5/27	Bennett Mechanical Comprehension
1.42	38.5/27	Minnesota Rate of Manipulation (Adaptation for the Blind)‡
1.73	38/22	Minnesota Rate of Manipulation
2.08	27/13	MacQuarrie Mechanical Ability
2.08	27/13	SRA Mechanical Aptitude
1.63	13/8	Minnesota Manual Dexterity
2.08	12.5/6	Stenquist Mechanical
3.60	18/5	Engineer and Physical Science Aptitude
2.00	4/2	O'Rourke Motor Proficiency
		Stanford Scientific Aptitude

Artistic

1.26	24/19	Meier Art Judgment
1.60	16/10	Graves Design Judgment
1.67	5/3	Stencil Design Test
2.00	6/3	Lewerenz Fundamental Abil. Visual Art
2.00	4/2	McAdory Art
2.00	2/1	Knauber Art Ability

Vocational

1.00	2/2	Kent-Shakow Form Boards
1.50	3/2	Test for Ability to Sell
3.00	3/1	Engle-Stenquist Home Econom.

Miscellaneous

1.18	20/17	Seashore Measure Musical Talent
1.00	10/10	Audiometer (Western Electric)
1.50	6/4	Pseudo Isochromatic Plates
1.33	4/3	Farnsworth Color Blindness Test
1.50	3/2	Color Blindness Test (American Optical Company)
		Jensen Color Blindness Test

ACHIEVEMENT TESTS

Mean Rating	*Ratio*	
1.83	53/29	Stanford Achievement
1.82	20/11	California Achievement
2.13	17/8	Iowa Tests of Educational Development
3.50	24.5/7	Iowa Silent Reading
2.20	11/5	Coop General Achievement (Revised)
2.80	14/5	Gates Basic Reading
2.90	14.5/5	Metropolitan Achievement
2.50	10/4	Iowa High School Content Exam.
2.50	10/4	Nelson-Denny Reading
3.00	12/4	Coop Reading
2.00	6/3	Iowa Placement and Achievement
3.00	6/2	USAFI-General Educational Development
1.00	1/1	Cardall Arithmetic
1.00	1/1	SRA Reading Record
5.00	5/1	Durrell-Sullivan Reading
6.00	6/1	Iowa Every Pupil Basic Skills
7.00	7/1	Coop General Culture
		Essential High School Content

INTEREST INVENTORY

Mean Rating	*Ratio*	
1.23	81/66	Kuder Preference Record—Vocational
2.22	80/36	Strong Vocational Interest Blanks
1.75	24.5/15	Lee-Thorpe Vocational Interest (Revised)
2.42	29/12	California Occupational Interest
2.50	15/16	Brainard Occupational Preference
3.00	18/6	Thurstone Interest Schedule
3.50	21/6	Primary Business Interest (Cardall)
2.80	14/5	Michigan Vocabulary Test
4.20	21/5	Cleeton Vocational Interest

PERSONALITY SURVEY

1.97	69/35	Minnesota Multiphasic Inventory
2.13	72.5/34	Bell Adjustment

2.40	48/20	Kuder Preference Record—Personal
2.80	47.5/17	Bernreuter Personality
2.21	31/14	Sentence Completion Test
2.27	29.5/13	California Personality
2.82	31/11	Vineland Social Maturity Scale
1.50	13.5/9	Minnesota Personality Scale
2.33	14/6	Mooney Problem Check List
3.00	18/6	Edwards Personal Preference Schedule
2.75	11/4	Thurstone Temperament Schedule
3.00	12/4	Guilford-Zimmerman Temp. Survey
3.25	13/4	Sargent Insight (Adaptation for the Blind)‡
3.50	14/4	Study of Values (Allport)
1.00	2/2	SRA Youth Inventory
3.00	3/1	Heston Personality Adjustment

* Indicates frequency of use to sum of ratings.

† The numerator indicates the total sum of ratings by different agencies. The denominator indicates the total number of ratings by different agencies.

‡ Indicates tests used especially with blind clients.

It is evident from the preceding discussion that some tests, such as the Wechsler Bellevue (Adaptation for the Blind), are used more frequently within an agency but not used in as many agencies as the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale and the Wechsler Bellevue Intelligence Scale. Thus, although a test may appear to be used quite frequently within a few agencies, it may not have as widespread use among agencies as another such test in the same category or even in other categories.

To illustrate this fact, a comparison of the Wechsler Bellevue (Adaptation for the Blind), among the scholastic aptitude tests, with the Purdue Peg Board, in the spatial relations tests, reveals that the mean rating for the Wechsler is lower than that for the Peg Board. This implies that the Wechsler is used more frequently, but a comparison of their use among agencies shows that the Wechsler is used by only 27 agencies, whereas the Purdue Peg Board is used by 40 agencies. Thus, the reader should use caution in interpreting the results of this study after carefully inspecting both indices of TABLE 1.

The data presented in TABLE 2 summarize the results of this survey from the point of view of the different categories of tests used. TABLE 2 indicates that 96 per cent of the 78 reporting agencies used at least one intelligence test.

TABLE 2 also reveals that 93 per cent of the 78 responding agencies used at least one interest inventory. The Kuder Preference Record—Vocational is used almost twice as frequently as either of the Strong Vocational Interest Blanks.

Eighty-seven per cent of the rehabilitation agencies used at least one personality test.

Eighty-nine per cent of the rehabilitation agencies used a mechanical aptitude test. In TABLE 2 it can be seen that more than twice as many rehabilitation agencies used

TABLE 2

Number and Percentage of Combined, General, and Blind Vocational Rehabilitation Agencies in the United States Using at Least One of the Tests in the Categories Listed

	Categories of Tests	*Combined*		*General*		*Blind*		*Total All Agencies*	
		N	%	*N*	%	*N*	%	*N*	%
1.	Scholastic aptitude	12	85.71	31	100	32	96.96	75	96.15
2.	Multifactor	8	57.14	23	74.19	3	09.09	34	43.58
3.	Spatial relations	11	78.57	29	93.54	18	54.54	58	74.35
4.	Clerical aptitude	11	78.57	31	100	4	12.12	46	58.97
5.	Mechanical aptitude	12	85.71	30	96.77	28	84.84	70	89.74
6.	Artistic	6	42.85	18	58.06	..	...	24	06.41
7.	Vocational	1	07.14	3	09.67	1	03.03	5	06.41
8.	Achievement	8	57.14	22	70.96	6	18.18	36	46.15
9.	Interest inventory	12	85.71	31	100	30	90.90	73	93.58
10.	Personality survey	10	71.42	30	96.77	28	84.84	68	87.17
11.	Miscellaneous	5	35.71	10	32.25	13	39.39	28	35.89

scholastic aptitude tests as used achievement tests. The 74 per cent of agencies using spatial relations tests and the 89 per cent using mechanical aptitude tests seem to indicate more clients with experience or stated interest in mechanical occupations.

Conclusions

From these data it is concluded that the variety of tests used by state rehabilitation agencies do not differ significantly from that of other guidance agencies reported in previous studies. It is also concluded that the tests most frequently used by state rehabilitation agencies, except for some slight arrangement in order of tests, are not different from those most frequently used by other guidance and counseling agencies, according to the results reported in the related studies. In this and previous studies made in 1947, 1948, and 1956, there is close agreement on the 15 to 20 most common tests basic to the guidance function. Beyond this point the frequency of use of tests varies widely. Thus, it is concluded that the test usage activities in state vocational rehabilitation agencies are similar to other guidance agencies.

Though one cannot conclude that a prevalent practice or activity justifies imitation of that practice or activity *per se*, the results of this study seem to have some significant implications for the general area of testing in vocational rehabilitation. There is considerable concern among rehabilitation agencies concerning the total evaluative process with rehabilitation clients. Investigation of the literature revealed no significant research or studies of specific evaluations of the psychological testing programs in the rehabilitation process. The lack of such research should provide stimulation for studies of the evaluative processes in vocational rehabilitation.

The results of this study provide some indications that a large number of these agencies are actively using tests and inventories, as shown by TABLE 2. It is suggested that the rehabilitation counselor trainee should become intimately acquainted with those tests in common use.

The use of special normative or standardization data with rehabilitation clients should be ascertained. The consideration of such factors through empirical investigation will provide considerable realism and valuable information for counseling use.

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GUIDANCE WORKSHOP PLANNED

An Autumn Guidance Workshop sponsored by the New York State Association of Deans and Guidance Personnel is scheduled for the weekend of October 2 on the Harriman Campus of Columbia University located in the Ramapo Mountains of New York State. The workshop's theme, "The Challenge of Human Potential," will be discussed by such participants as Ralph W. Tyler, Director of the Center for Advanced Study in Behavioral Sciences, and Margaret R. Smith, Research Analyst of the Division of Admissions and Records, Wayne State University.

Factors Associated with Scholastic Achievement in High and Low Achieving Fraternities

WILLIAM R. BUTLER

THE AMERICAN college social fraternity system began 133 years ago.[1] Since its beginning, the techniques used in attempting to control the behavior of fraternity pledges have been, primarily, authoritarian. To aid the pledge scholastically, the philosophy of most fraternities has condoned the use of negative methods such as intimidation, hazing, fear, and punishment. Consequently, the problem of providing an environment in which students can perform at a scholastic level appropriate to their ability and, at the same time, accept the values and goals of social fraternity organizations has been of concern to educators and administrators for many years.

Recently, more attention has been given to the problem of stimulating students to achieve scholastically. The literature is filled with long and critical speeches made at annual National Interfraternity Conference meetings concerning the need for the social fraternity to raise its scholastic level.

Until recent years, the scholarship of nonfraternity men has been significantly higher than that of fraternity men. However, there is evidence today that the college fraternity is making greater strides to equal, at least, the scholarship records of the nonfraternity population on the college campuses.

Often fraternities have been criticized when it has appeared that fraternal goals and values have actually hampered scholastic achievement of college students and perpetuated attitudes of scholastic indifference out of preference for social aspects of college life. By placing a major emphasis on the social development of students, some fraternities have found themselves in conflict with the scholastic goals of colleges and universities. Often one can observe cross purposes —those of the college or university and those of the fraternities. The student is then placed in a situation of conflict for he must choose between the social atmosphere of the fraternal group and the intellectual aims of the university.

The Problem and Its Background

From 1950–1955 at the University of Kansas, an interesting phenomenon occurred regularly among the 27 social fraternities on campus. The scholastic achievement of certain fraternities had always been superior to that of other fraternities. Upon examination of the scholarship lists published each year by Interfraternity Council, it was found that three fraternities held, almost without exception, top positions on the lists. In opposition to this, another three fraternities stayed at the bottom of the scholarship lists. The remaining 21 fraternities exchanged positions from year to year but, in general, maintained a central posi-

WILLIAM R. BUTLER is Dean of Men at Ohio University, Athens.

This paper was presented at the American Personnel and Guidance Association Convention, St. Louis, Missouri, April 1, 1958. Portions of the paper have been taken from the dissertation findings of the writer. The research was done while he was Assistant Dean of Men at the University of Kansas. His research topic was, *An Analytical Study of Factors Associated with Scholastic Achievement in High and Low Achieving Fraternities.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Kansas, 1956. The dissertation was done under the chairmanship of Dr. E. Gordon Collister, Director of the Guidance Bureau, University of Kansas.

[1] Historians usually call Phi Beta Kappa, founded in 1776, the common ancestor of the hundreds of fraternities which function today on campuses throughout the United States and Canada. However, the campus of Union College, Schenectady, New York, claims the title, "The Mother of Fraternities," for it was in 1825 that Kappa Alpha Society was founded, followed in 1827 by Sigma Phi and Delta Phi. These three fraternities form the "Union Triad" and have maintained an uninterrupted existence in their original character as general social fraternities as contrasted to honorary and professional fraternities. For greater detail see [*6, 9, 11*].

tion on the scholarship lists. Therefore, one can ascertain that members of certain fraternities achieved high grade point averages consistently, while those which maintained low averages stood in the same relative position over the same period of time.

This study was an investigation of factors associated with scholastic achievement in the three high and three low achieving fraternities—particularly within their pledge groups. Also, the study was an attempt to understand scholarship practices and the methods employed in assisting pledges of social fraternities at the University of Kansas to attain scholastic achievement.

The statistical technique analysis of variance and covariance was used to account for the effect that scholastic ability, as measured by the ACE total score, and high school achievement, as measured by the student's quartile rank in his high school graduating class, had on the pledge's educational achievement in college. One hundred twenty-five male students, who comprised the three high and three low achieving pledge groups, made up the sample for the statistical analysis. Actually, there were 386 pledge and active members in the six fraternities.

Method

The records kept in the Office of the Dean of Students and the Guidance Bureau were used to obtain the necessary data. The data collected were considered confidential information and no individual names or fraternity names were used throughout the study. For purposes of identification, arbitrary numbers were assigned to individuals and fraternity groups.

On the basis of the statistical analysis, it was found that the two variables of scholastic ability and educational achievement in high school did not account for all of the differences in college achievement between the pledges of the high and low groups. There was a significant difference between the adjusted mean grade point averages of the high and low groups after one semester in college. It appeared that in addition to the previously mentioned variables, other factors that influenced achievement were operating within the environments of the six fraternities.

After completing the statistical analysis of the data, it was the writer's intention to study the climates within the six fraternities to determine what factors were concomitant with scholastic achievement. The plan was to interview 46 students from six fraternities. The president and scholarship chairman of each of the fraternities were contacted separately and the feasibility of their fraternity's participation was discussed with them. Space does not allow a detailed summary of each of the topics considered in the discussion but three important points bear mentioning:

1. It was stressed that the research and data would be handled in a professional manner. No attempt would be made to coerce the groups participating to change or alter their present scholarship or pledge programs.

2. The pledges, selected at random, would be asked through a personal letter to participate in a private interview. Thus, the chapter need have no knowledge of its participating members.

3. Each fraternity was promised a summary of the findings of the research. The groups were free to use the information as they chose.

After completing the interviews with the 12 fraternity leaders, the project was presented by the leaders to their respective chapters. The members of the six fraternities voted to participate in the project as outlined without reservation or alterations.

The data were collected by means of recorded interviews. A semi-structured, though informal, interview was used. A permissive atmosphere prevailed so that the interviewee could talk freely about his experience within the fraternity. The purpose of the semi-structured interview was to give some degree of insurance that similar areas would be covered with all of the interviewees. All 46 of the interviews were conducted in private.

The ability to differentiate in the interviews between statements of fact and statements of sentiment was very important. Since many of the questions used through-

out the interviews required answers that included attitudes and sentiments rather than concrete conditions that existed within a given fraternity, it was imperative that some conceptual scheme be used in order to discriminate between statements of fact and sentiment. It was quite possible to treat the statements of interviewees as entirely factual. On the other hand, certain types of sentiments might only be symptoms or indicators of a personal or social situation which needed further exploring. Consequently, a conceptual scheme was used similar to that proposed by Roethlisberger and Dickson in their book, *Management and the Worker* [*10*].

After interviewing each of the students, the 46 recorded interviews were transcribed into some 600 single spaced pages of typescript. Each recorded interview was then abstracted onto 4 x 6 index cards, thus allowing a more manageable method for analyzing the data.

The data from each fraternity were treated independently in that the material from one fraternity was studied and analyzed before the next fraternity was considered. The following areas were analyzed in each of the six groups: (a) selection of the pledge, (b) routine of the pledge, (c) pledge-active relationships, (d) controlling behavior of pledges, and (e) satisfaction of individual needs.

After writing about each group and then carefully scrutinizing the analysis of each group separately, generalizations were developed from the data. Specific hypotheses were formulated from one fraternity at a time. The same system of analysis was followed with each of the three high and three low groups.

The generalizations which were developed from the three high achieving fraternities were then organized into a system. And, similarly, generalizations from the three low achieving fraternities were organized into a system. Each generalization developed from the data of the high achieving groups had its antithesis in the low achieving fraternities. Altogether, there were 18 separate generalizations which suggested a concomitant relationship between certain environmental factors and scholastic achievement.

The Findings

From the analysis of the data collected in the interviews, the following 18 generalizations suggested relationships between certain environmental conditions and scholastic achievement.

1a. A fraternity atmosphere is a productive and cooperative one when the behavior of pledges and the expectations of the members of the active chapter coincide.

1b. When the behavior of pledges and the expectations of the members of the active chapter do not coincide, a fraternity atmosphere is an unproductive and uncooperative one.

2a. A fraternity social system is a productive and cooperative one when the expectations of the actives are perceived by the pledges to be reasonable.

2b. When the expectations of the actives are perceived by the pledges to be unreasonable, a fraternity social system is an unproductive and uncooperative one.

3. Setting examples for pledges to follow provides indications of behavior considered proper and acceptable to the group.

3a. If the examples set by actives are ones that portray attitudes of scholastic importance and interest in group activities, then the pledge will accept this standard when judging others' behavior and his own behavior.

3b. If the examples set by actives are ones that portray attitudes of indifference toward scholarship and apathy for group activities, then the pledge will accept this standard when judging others' behavior and his own behavior.

4a. When individual needs are satisfied, social control is more easily attained. A state of social control contributes to attitudes of scholastic importance and interest in supporting group activities. Attitudes of scholastic importance contribute to high scholastic achievement.

4b. When individual needs are not satisfied, social control is less easily attained. A lack of social control contributes to attitudes of scholastic indifference and disinterest in

supporting group activities. Attitudes of scholastic indifference contribute to low scholastic achievement.

5a. When actives have control over their pledges, the members of the fraternity are better able to understand and profit from their daily experiences.

5b. When actives do not have control over their pledges, the members of the fraternity are less able to understand and profit from their daily experiences.

6a. An atmosphere in which pledges are respected, accepted, and encouraged will develop inter-personal relationships that are likely to be positive. Positive inter-personal relationships between actives and pledges are likely to develop positive attitudes. Positive attitudes will tend to produce attitudes of scholastic importance and interest in supporting group activities. Attitudes of scholastic importance will contribute to high scholastic achievement.

6b. An atmosphere in which pledges are belittled, embarrassed, and made to feel inferior will develop inter-personal relationships that are likely to be negative. Negative inter-personal relationships between actives and pledges are likely to develop negative attitudes. Negative attitudes will tend to produce attitudes of scholastic indifference and disinterest in supporting group activities. Attitudes of scholastic indifference will contribute to low scholastic achievement.

7a. An atmosphere in which pledges are given the opportunity to take self-initiated action and be responsible for those actions will contribute to good scholarship and interest in supporting group activities.

7b. An atmosphere in which pledges are given little opportunity to take self-initiated action and be responsible for those actions will contribute to poor scholarship and disinterest in supporting group activities.

8a. A systematic and consistent method of reward and punishment will tend to develop inter-personal relationships that are positive. Positive inter-personal relationships between actives and pledges are likely to develop positive attitudes. Positive attitudes will tend to produce attitudes of scholastic importance and interest in supporting group activities. Attitudes of scholastic importance will contribute to high scholastic achievement.

8b. An unsystematic and inconsistent method of reward and punishment will tend to develop inter-personal relationships that are negative. Negative inter-personal relationships between actives and pledges are likely to develop negative attitudes. Negative attitudes will tend to produce attitudes of scholastic indifference and disinterest in supporting group activities. Attitudes of scholastic indifference will contribute to low scholastic achievement.

9a. The use of reward alone, or a combination of reward and punishment, is likely to develop inter-personal relationships that are positive. Positive inter-personal relationships between actives and pledges are likely to develop positive attitudes. Positive attitudes will tend to produce attitudes of scholastic importance and interest in supporting group activities. Attitudes of scholastic importance will contribute to high scholastic achievement.

9b. The use of punishment alone is likely to develop negative inter-personal relationships between actives and pledges. Negative inter-personal relationships between actives and pledges are likely to develop negative attitudes. Negative attitudes will tend to produce attitudes of scholastic indifference and disinterest in supporting group activities. Attitudes of scholastic indifference will contribute to low scholastic achievement.

Discussion of the Findings

Space will not permit a lengthy discussion of all conditions which existed within the fraternities that suggested these generalizations. However, each generalization will be discussed briefly so that a better understanding of the concrete conditions which existed within the high and low groups may be gained.

Generalization 6: It will be noticed that generalization 6b is the antithesis of generalization 6a. An atmosphere of respect, acceptance, and encouragement was concomitant with high scholastic achievement. In opposition to this, an atmosphere in

which pledges were belittled, embarrassed, and made to feel inferior was concomitant with low scholastic achievement.

The three high achieving fraternities controlled their pledges largely through an appeal to the pledge's intrinsic motivations. The actives gave a large amount of moral support and encouragement and respected the rules of fair play. Their pledges gained attitudes of satisfaction toward their pledge program and, ultimately, produced high scholastic achievement.

On the other hand, the pledges of the three low groups faced daily the problems of dealing with the actives' capricious and unpredictable behavior. Inter-personal relationships between pledges and actives were negative. Pledges were belittled and humiliated to the point of subjection. The pledges talked freely in the interview situation of their dislike for certain actives who had mistreated them throughout the training period.

Generalization 1: The pledge programs of the high achieving fraternities were based upon a system of management and guidance rather than law enforcement. The fraternities took into account the attitudes of the pledges and allowed a considerable degree of opportunity for pledges to become self-directing. Pledge deviation from the system would usually occur as a result of refusal to accept the system rather than an inability to understand it. In the main, the pledges of the high achieving fraternities lived up to the expectations of the active members.

In contrast to this, the expectations of the active members in the low achieving fraternities far exceeded the behavior displayed by the pledges. In spite of the threat of "boards,"[2] pledges did not spend their time effectively in study. Often the pledges found it impossible to observe the rules because of the actives' lack of respect for the same rules. In the main, there existed a total lack of respect for the pledges. The pledges of the low achieving fraternities found it impossible to live up to the expectations of the active members.

Generalization 2: Pledges of the high achieving fraternities considered the expectations of the actives to be reasonable and realistic. Pledges were provided a full opportunity to scrutinize closely the scholastically successful members. The pledge accepted with pride the attitude that his fraternity was the best in existence. He felt that no other fraternity at the University demanded or expected as much of their pledges. Pledges overcame anxieties through the use of rationalizations such as, "We all suffer together". . ."To be a member really takes something". . ."No other group of pledges has it as rough as we do." Yet the pledges felt that they were treated with respect and never received punishment without complete justification.

The attempt to control pledges of the low achieving fraternities by using a maximum amount of punishment yielded a minimum amount of production. The pledge, although aware of pledge rules and regulations, was too often bewildered by the many actives' various interpretations of the rules. The low achieving fraternities attempted to solve academic problems by requiring attendance at a proctored study table. The pledges strongly opposed the study table method and felt it unreasonable to ask a great number of students to study in one room at the same time. Moreover, group study was considered unreasonable because the conditions under which it existed were not conducive to mental seclusion.

Generalization 3: It was observed that there were times when the pledges of the high and low achieving fraternities "copied" the behavior of the actives. That is, a given pledge learned to model his behavior after

[2] A leather board, approximately two and one-half feet in length, was used to administer punishment. Boards were administered at any time an active chose to do so. However, some actives did not choose to administer punishment. Therefore, boards accumulated throughout the week and were given on Monday nights before the active chapter. This meeting was called "board night" or "cord night" since all pledges wore their heaviest corduroy trousers for the meeting. Boards as a form of punishment had been outlawed by the fraternities' national chapters. Their continued use was explained by the students in two ways: (1) The fraternity felt that the national chapter had to outlaw boards in order to placate public opinion; and (2) the national chapter had not offered any system of control that seemed to be as effective as the use of boards.

that of an active. If the active demonstrated an intellectually curious attitude and an interest in supporting group activities, then the pledge would tend to "imitate" this behavior. The actives of the high achieving groups were constantly aware of the pledge's presence and made every effort to present themselves to the pledges in the best light.

The reverse situation was also true. When the active demonstrated a scholastically indifferent attitude and an apathy toward group activities, then the pledge would show similar behavior. The men of the low achieving groups made little or no attempt to set good examples. Actives broke rules with no ill effects and, eventually, the pledges broke rules with no fears of doing so. Generally, the actives deviated greatly from the behavior they expected of the pledges.

Generalization 4: To see and understand the pledge as an individual who had definite physical and emotional needs was an aspiration of the high achieving fraternities. Pledges were treated with respect and not asked to perform embarrassing activities. Each pledge had usually established a close personal relationship with an active or actives before his initiation into the chapter.

Moreover, a pledge always knew the reasons for his rewards and punishments. An active's "personality" or "personal whims" were not a part of the system. Pledges and actives relied upon the law of the fraternity and the law of the group was understood, accepted, and respected by its members.

In contrast, the low achieving fraternities had few provisions in their pledge programs for satisfying the pledge's personal and academic problems. There was no systematic method of reward and punishment or social control. Often the punishment handed out by an active seemed to result from an almost barbarous intent. Frequently, actives hazed pledges and the only reason given to the pledge for such action was "insubordination," an illusive term in fraternal life.

The pledges of the low achieving fraternities learned to cope with their many anxieties which had been created by hazing techniques. They defied rules which brought punishment. They slept during the study hours, left the house during study hours, went to the movies without permission, and drank beer without being discovered.

In the main, the low achieving fraternities had reached a state of social conflict, for the lives led by the pledges and actives were in direct conflict with the behavior that was expected of them by the University and society.

Generalization 5: The high achieving fraternities developed systems of control based upon management rather than law enforcement. Pledges were given opportunities to make their own decisions involving certain well-defined areas. The pledge could perceive clearly the road he must travel if he intended to be promoted and honored by the fraternity. The actives had little difficulty in controlling their pledges, whether they used a bureaucratic system, authoritarian system, or democratic system. The pledges were treated with respect and accepted the law of the fraternity as "just" and "right." Had unreasonable measures been imposed upon the pledges by the active chapters, it was presumed that pledges would attempt to test the limits of that control, rather than assist in the management of it.

The capricious and individualistic behavior of the actives in the low achieving fraternities was a major factor in the loss of control over the pledges. The pledges were faced continually with the unpredictable behavior of the active members. It should be emphasized that such behavior brought about stress and anxiety situations for the pledges. The pledges saw too many inconsistencies between their own rules and the actives' behavior and they realized that their pledge training was not adequate preparation for active membership.

Generalization 7: Generalization 7a was not fulfilled by all of the three high achieving groups. The amount of self-direction given to the pledges in each of the fraternities varied considerably.

One of the high achieving fraternities began its pledge program by making the

assumption that an entering student at the University had the potential to achieve the grades required by initiation if given the opportunity and necessary environment to do so. Actives were always available to "guide" or help the pledge in his endeavor, but the responsibility for scholastic achievement rested with each pledge.

A second high achieving fraternity did not fulfill the conditions set forth by generalization 7a. The assumption was made at the beginning of pledgeship that a pledge had to prove his worth before he received any recognition or privileges from the chapter. The pledge was required to be at the house in his room studying at all times unless he had an acceptable excuse. The pledge felt significantly inferior, yet dependent upon the fraternity. The pledge tolerated the demands of the chapter and before the semester's end accepted most of the group's norms and values.

Traditionally, this fraternity was fortunate enough to be able to extract an individual's supreme effort by its tactics. A claim was made that a "C" student in high school would become a "B" college student under their system or a "B" student in high school would become an "A" student. Pledges and actives alike extended themselves to the limit to excel in any worthwhile undertaking.

While the fraternity placed a great amount of physical and mental pressure upon its pledges initially, it was observed that some of this pressure was relaxed as the semester progressed and as the student proved his worth to the chapter.

The philosophy of the third high achieving fraternity might be considered "middle of the road" when compared to the philosophy of the other two high groups. While the actives demanded certain obedience to the many rules and regulations of this bureaucratic system, the pledge was accepted as an individual with definite physical and emotional needs. Exceptions to the pledge rules were made when the fraternity decided that a particular case warranted such action. This fraternity might have been considered a "benevolent dictatorship" for the system was felt to be "fair" and "just" by the pledges, yet the rules and regulations were imposed upon the pledges by the active chapter with few opportunities for alterations to be made by the pledges.

In contrast, all of the low achieving pledges were expected to follow a very rigid schedule through the week which included house duties, study table, and a full social calendar. Deviations from the rigid routine were handled by punishment in the form of "boards." The pledges had no opportunities to take responsibility for themselves. They were expected to obey all of the rules which had been legislated by the active chapter.

Generalization 9: The high achieving fraternities used methods for controlling behavior which were based on the use of reward alone or a combination of reward and punishment. The high achieving groups attempted to demonstrate by example and gave the pledges moral suport and encourgement throughout the semester. In spite of occasional punishment, the active members established positive inter-personal relationships with their pledges.

On the other hand, the three low achieving fraternities used primarily punishment and reproof throughout the training period. Actives relied upon their "natural" rights and authority and felt that a pledge should learn to respect stern discipline. Inter-personal relationships between actives and pledges were mainly negative. Pledges felt that there were many actives with whom they would never enjoy associating. Mainly, these actives were ones who had been severe in their hazing methods and displayed great pleasure when administering "boards."

Generalization 8: In many ways, generalization 8 was the most fascinating of all. Because of the systematic and consistent methods of reward and punishment, the pledges of the high achieving fraternities had no doubt of the "road" they must travel for honors and promotions within the fraternal group. In one high group, a bureaucratic organization was established to provide an easily identifiable system for all students to earn status and be recognized

within the fraternity. One sees a definite parallel between the promotional system of this fraternity and the bureaucratic system of a corporation or government agency. Members of the fraternity as well as employees of the corporation or government agency need not depend entirely on interaction for advancement. Because of their complexity and size, these organizations are best maintained by the bureaucratic system.

On the other hand, the pledges of the low achieving fraternities had no systematic scheme to follow in achieving status within their groups. Pledges began their training under an over-emphasized orientation of the importance of social excellence. The necessary scholastic achievement for pledge initiation was considered to be almost automatically obtainable so long as the pledge was subjected to a gross amount of physical and mental hazing. Often, various actives seized opportunities to administer boards "for sport," "to have fun," or "just to be swinging." As a result of the ways in which "boards" were used, negative inter-personal relationships developed between actives and pledges. Because the low achieving groups lacked a bureaucratic system of reward and punishment, controlling behavior rested with the "law of the individual" rather than the "law of the group."

Conclusion

It is important to emphasize that the purpose of this research was to make a comparative study of six social fraternities. The writer has not begun to answer questions of a quantitative nature. Neither the question "how much" nor "to what degree" interaction should take place between actives and pledges in order for them to develop positive inter-personal relationships has been discussed. The writer has analyzed, by comparative method only, various aspects of high and low achieving fraternities.

One of the major purposes of the study was to develop, rather than test, generalizations about factors associated with scholastic achievement in high and low achieving fraternities. It is important to keep in mind that there will always be exceptions to general statements. Any applications to concrete data must be tempered by the conditions specific to a given situation. Consequently, the generalizations should be viewed as abstractions for developing additional insights into similar situations. On the other hand, if these generalizations are to contribute to our understanding of social groups, further research will need to be done in validating the findings presented in this paper.

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EFFECT OF GROUP GUIDANCE AND INDIVIDUAL COUNSELING ON CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

DONALD A. DAVIS

AN EXPERIMENTAL study was designed and tested at Trona High School, Trona, California, to determine the effect of group guidance and individual counseling as modifiers of behavior in the classroom. It was felt that perhaps these could be used to advantage in alleviating some of the discipline problems of the teacher. Citizenship grades were used to measure the change of behavior of the students in the experiment since these are a reasonably objective means of examining the data and can be easily defined. In many cases teachers feel that an appropriate function of the counselor is to aid students in identifying and solving citizenship problems [3]. The faculty as a group was not appraised of the nature of the experiment while it was in progress in order not to contaminate the data unnecessarily. However, three study-hall teachers from which the students were taken were told that the students were to attend a class in group guidance twice a week. This may or may not have affected the data.

The following experimental hypotheses were tested:

1. That group guidance has an effect on behavior in the classroom as measured by citizenship grades.
2. That individual counseling has an effect on behavior in the classroom as measured by citizenship grades.
3. That the mere passage of time has no effect on behavior in the classroom as measured by citizenship grades.
4. That group guidance results in greater improvement of behavior as measured by citizenship grades than does individual counseling when the same amount of counselor time is used with each method.

DONALD A. DAVIS is a Doctoral student in guidance and counseling at Michigan State University and on temporary leave of absence from Trona Unified School District, Trona, California.

Definitions

For the purpose of this experiment, group guidance was defined as group activities which are aimed primarily at the modification of attitudes, standards, and values as revealed in more socially acceptable behavior [1].

Counseling is a face-to-face relationship of the student and the counselor in which the student is helped by the best means at the counselor's command to gain a more acceptable and realistic self concept, to gain increasing insight into his problem areas, and to improve skills in solving these problems in socially approved ways [2].

Citizenship is defined on the Trona report cards as including a cooperative attitude, courtesy for others, promptness, coming prepared to work, using class time to best advantage, and having respect for school property.

Method

The citizenship grades of the junior class of 70 students were averaged at the end of the school year and the students were ranked according to these averages. The lowest 30 were selected for the study. These were then divided further into three groups of 10 each by random selection. The first 10 became Group A, the second 10 became Group B, and the third 10 became Group C. The experiment was carried out during the first quarter of the senior year.

Group A participated in 20 fifty-minute periods of group guidance. The students in Group B received two periods each of individual counseling for a total of 20 periods of counseling time. This gave each group the same amount of time from the counselor. Group C received neither group guidance nor individual counseling and thus became the control group. Such a method permitted a comparison of group guidance and

individual counseling with another group as a control. These randomly selected groups were well matched in relation to sex, age, grade, citizenship grades, IQ, number of children in family, number of schools attended, and educational retardation in years.

Procedure

Group A: Each student in Group A was invited to participate in a class which was to be held twice a week for 10 weeks. They were to come to the first meeting, ask any questions they liked, and then decide whether they wanted to attend or not.

The first meeting was spent in discussing the purpose, content, and procedure of the new "class." The counselor opened the meeting by saying that all of the students gathered there were alike in one aspect. They were in the bottom 50 per cent of the senior class in citizenship, and the purpose of the class would be to remedy this. If they came to the second meeting, their presence would be expected at all of the rest of the meetings. They would be able to say anything and everything they liked about anyone, and they were told that whatever was said would be kept absolutely confidential by the counselor.

All 10 students decided to attend regularly, and from this point on, the counselor made every atempt to be as non-directive as possible. He answered direct questions honestly and with as little bias as possible. He cooperated with the demands of the students. He gave advice only when persistently requested. He tried to take notes of the proceedings inconspicuously, but this was objected to vehemently by some of the students and no further attempt was made to record the events. He introduced questionnaires, role playing, and check lists for the students' consideration and answered questions about them, but it was always made quite clear that they could do as they wished about them. Decisions were made by the group and were final. The counselor tried to talk as little as possible. At first this was difficult because the group was leader-centered, but as time went on the counselor came to be accepted as a member and less and less importance was assigned to his presence. His role was never that of another student, however. The range and quality of behavior varied from session to session, but there seemed to be a gradual awareness of personality problems taking place, a willingness to talk about them, and fewer defensive attitudes toward them.

It should be stressed that what has been reported in this section and the following are impressions, reactions, and interpretations by the counselor. There were no measurements made of these in the experiment. The only satisfactory available measurement was the before and after evaluation of citizenship by a disinterested group of teachers.

Group B: The students who were to receive individual counseling were each interviewed a minimum of two times. Several students came in a time or two for additional discussion, but this was on a voluntary basis and does not represent part of the study.

The students were asked one at a time to come in for a discussion of their citizenship grades. After a warm welcome and a few minutes devoted to establishing rapport, the student was asked if he knew that he was in the bottom 50 per cent of the class in citizenship. A definition of citizenship was offered and then the student was asked if he would like to discuss the matter any further. The interviews lasted from 40 to 50 minutes each and covered anything that the student wished to talk about. Again, as in Group A, hostilities were expressed and tensions were reduced, but not as completely nor as violently as in the other situation. More of the time was devoted to working out solutions to problems concerning inter-personal relations with specific teachers and less on a realization and acceptance of personal attitudes which were the real basis of the problems.

There was a feeling in some instances, certainly by the counselor and perhaps by the student, of over concern with a non-existent or unimportant problem. The student just didn't seem emotionally involved. One cause of this may be that the interviews were counselor initiated; another cause, and

likely a concomitant one, was that there was little or no insight by the student into the problem. In just two interviews the counselor and the student rarely got beyond the "it's the teacher's fault" stage. It may be that a requisite of successful personal counseling is that the interview be student initiated in most cases.

Another intervening factor and one that is difficult to identify and describe was an apparent feeling by some of the students of an authority-dependency relationship between the counselor and the student. This seemed to inhibit free discussion of the matter on the part of three of the girls who were not relating well with adults. They were ill at ease and appeared somewhat relieved as the interview reached its conclusion.

The second interview was held in the latter part of the quarter and was usually a follow-up of relations with the teachers.

Results

At the end of the quarter, the citizenship grades were gathered and tabulated. As is evident in TABLE 1, Group A improved over Groups B and C in the post-test. Perhaps it should be noted here that at the beginning of the study two students in Group C were subjected to unexpected and somewhat unusual changes in environment, unusual for this type of student. One was elected as senior class representative to the student council and another was made student commander of the Cadet Corps. Both of these changes seemed to have altered the self-concepts of the boys involved and may account for some of the increase in citizenship in Group C.

Although these groups were remarkably well matched by age, sex, etc., an unmatched group formula and *t* ratios were used to derive the limits of confidence. When post-test differences were compared at the end of the experiment, Group A and Group B were significantly different at the 0.05 level of confidence. The difference between Group A and Group C was not significant. Groups B and C did not differ significantly.

When the pre-post measures were compared, correlation was assumed and a correlated means formula with *t* ratios was used. Group A changed significantly at the 0.05 level of confidence, Group B changed significantly at the 0.05 level of confidence, and Group C did not change significantly.

Conclusions

1. The hypothesis that group guidance has an effect on behavior in the classroom

TABLE 1

Observed Mean Differences in the Data Before and After the Experiment

	*Mean**	*Mean*†	*S.D.**	*S.D.*†	*t ratio*	*Significance*
Pre-test*						
A–B	2.29	2.36	0.59	0.45	0.28	N.S.**
B–C	2.36	2.25	0.45	0.61	0.44	N.S.
A–C	2.29	2.25	0.59	0.61	0.14	N.S.
Post-test*						
A–B	3.19	2.87	0.39	0.17	2.13	0.05††
B–C	2.87	2.84	0.17	0.48	0.17	N.S.
A–C	3.19	2.84	0.39	0.48	1.52	N.S.
Pre-post-test†						
A_1–A_2	2.29	3.19	0.59	0.39	3.02	0.05
B_1–B_2	2.36	2.87	0.45	0.17	3.18	0.05
C_1–C_2	2.25	2.84	0.61	0.48	2.03	N.S.

* Small pooled group formula used.

† Matched pair formula used.

** Not a significant difference.

†† Significant at the 0.05 level of confidence.

as measured by citizenship grades can be accepted with confidence. It is tenable at the 0.05 level of confidence.

2. The hypothesis that individual counseling has an effect on behavior in the classroom as measured by citizenship grades can be accepted with confidence. It is tenable at the 0.05 level of confidence.

3. The hypothesis that the mere passage of time has no effect on behavior in the classroom as measured by citizenship grades can be accepted with confidence. There was no significant change in Group C during the experiment.

4. The hypothesis that group guidance results in greater improvement of behavior as measured by citizenship grades than does individual counseling, when the same amount of counselor time is used with each method, can be accepted with confidence. Group A and Group B differed significantly at the 0.05 level of confidence.

These conclusions should not be generalized to a population other than one defined by the characteristics of the sample used in this experiment.

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CURRICULUM PLANNING TO BE CONFERENCE THEME

"Curriculum Planning to Meet Tomorrow's Needs" will be the theme of the 24th annual Education Conference sponsored by the Educational Records Bureau and the American Council on Education.

Slated for the Roosevelt Hotel in New York City on October 29 and 30, the conference will consist of morning, luncheon, and afternoon meetings on the two days and an evening meeting on October 29. Thursday luncheon speaker will be Samuel B. Gould of the University of California at Santa Barbara, and Friday luncheon speaker will be John J. Theobald, Superintendent of Schools, New York City. Among the topics to be discussed are "Impact of the Curriculum upon Values," "Curriculum Planning—Whose Responsibility?," "Curriculum Trends in the Subject Fields," "Communication Media and the Curriculum," and "Relation of Testing and Appraisal to Curriculum Planning." Representatives of independent schools, public schools, colleges, and other educational organizations will be attending the conference.

Achievement Motivation Characteristics of Negro College Freshmen

E. C. HARRISON

EVIDENCE has been accumulating in the literature that achievement motivation is a function of cultural experience. In the investigation of the achievement motivation of a group of college students, McClelland [5] and his associates concluded that those cultures or families which stress independence and competition with standards of excellence will produce children with high achievement motivation. Rosen [8] found in his study of achievement motivation and values in a sample of sophomore high school students that there were class differences in achievement motives and that these differences were reflected in the academic and in the educational aspirational level of the subjects. There was a tendency for those who were identified as middle class members to have higher achievement motivation than those who were identified as lower class members.

Russel Dynes [1] and associates, in a study of the influence of family experience on levels of occupational aspirations, revealed that unsatisfactory interpersonal relations were associated with lower aspirational levels.

The Study

According to Eli Ginzberg [2], job opportunities at the professional level for Negroes exceed the availability of qualified Negroes. It may be assumed that this disparity could be reduced by providing more educational opportunities. In view of the empirical generalizations on levels of aspiration and motivation cited earlier, the achievement motivation of Negro youth may be a significant factor in reducing the differential between the expanding employment opportunities and the supply of qualified Negroes.

This study is an analysis of the achievement motivational characteristics of a sample of Negro freshmen in a Southern college to determine to what extent they were motivated to seek a job as evidenced by their willingness to become prepared, to make sacrifices, and to defer gratifications. The instrument used was a modification of the scale developed by Reissman [7]. Each subject was asked (1) to imagine that he had been promised a good paying job which carries high social prestige and provides opportunities for advancement and promotion, and (2) to indicate to what extent certain conditions would stop him from getting the job. The probable influence of the conditions on his getting the job were indicated by checking whether the condition (1) would stop him, (2) might stop him, (3) would be a serious consideration but would not stop him, and (4) would not matter.

It is important to note that a majority of the students in this sample of 716 males and females were of rural and working class origin.

Willingness to Prepare for Work

In the scale used in this study, the conditions related to preparation for work are "You will have to finish college," "You will have to put in long hours of study," and "You will have to do one year of on-the-job training at one-half of the regular pay."

Although enrolled in college, only 46.8 per cent of the students indicated that finishing college as a requirement would not stop them from getting the job (TABLE 1). On the other hand, 65.2 per cent indicated that long hours of study as a requirement would not serve as a deterrent.

E. C. HARRISON is Dean of Instruction for Southern University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana.

TABLE 1

Percentages Indicating Conditions that Would Not Serve as Deterring Factors in Securing a Job

Condition	Male		Female		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1. You will have to finish college	181	47.9	135	45.7	335	46.8
2. You will have to leave your home town	194	60.7	187	47.2	385	53.8
3. Leave your friends	187	58.1	223	56.3	414	57.9
4. Leave your parents	74	23.2	69	17.4	143	20.0
5. Take a qualifying examination	219	68.4	274	69.1	493	68.9
6. Take a part-time job that would require giving up social activities	137	43.0	191	48.2	328	45.9
7. Parents do not approve	40	12.5	35	8.8	75	10.5
8. Keep quiet about religious views	68	21.2	85	21.5	153	21.4
9. Keep quiet on political views	110	34.3	138	34.9	248	34.7
10. Do without a car	211	66.0	300	75.8	511	71.3
11. Keep quiet on racial views	83	26.0	127	32.1	210	29.3
12. Put off marriage two years	122	38.1	120	30.3	250	34.8
13. Will endanger your health	7	2.1	9	2.3	16	2.2
14. Put in long hours of study	210	65.6	34	64.9	467	65.2
15. Father does not approve	60	18.8	45	11.3	105	14.8
16. Mother does not approve	30	9.3	21	5.3	51	7.1
17. You will have to do one year of on-the-job training at one-half pay	125	39.3	150	37.9	275	38.4

Increasingly, preparation for many jobs —professional and sub-professional—requires some form of work experience after the formal schooling is completed. One who aspires to pursue medicine, law, salesmanship, and some engineering jobs may be expected, after completing his formal training, to place more value on the training benefits of work experience than on the financial returns. The subjects in this study appeared to have been unwilling to accept or seek a job that requires work experience; 38.4 per cent registered that working for a year at one-half the regular pay would not matter. This apparent reluctance on the part of a majority of the subjects is indicative of their deferred gratification pattern [*8*]. Expressing an attitude which, to a great extent, is characteristic of persons of working and lower class origin, the students were unwilling to defer the gratification or satisfaction that may be derived from employment at a full salary.

Willingness to Break Away from Ties of Family and Friends

To take advantage of employment opportunities resulting from broadening economic opportunities in America it is often necessary for one to leave his home town, friends, and parents for unfamiliar territories. Lending support to this generalization, Pihlblad and Gregory stated, "To follow the professions—law, medicine, journalism, or scientific pursuits, or to obtain training in these fields, migration from small town to the city is almost necessary" [*10, p. 57*].

In McClelland's study it was concluded that "subjects with low achievement motivation appear to have difficulty in cutting family ties and achieving independence" [*5, p. 286*]. This conclusion is supported by the results of studies of the characteristics of migrants: "Migrants more often than nonmigrants tend to belong to families or households whose size indicates a relative freedom from family controls or responsibilities." [*6, p. 72*].

Fifty-three and eight tenths per cent of the students indicated that they did not mind leaving their home towns, while 57.9 per cent did not mind leaving their friends.

It is interesting to note the strength of

family ties as evidenced by the apparent unwillingness of the students to leave their parents; only 20.0 per cent indicated that having to leave their parents would not serve as a deterring condition to getting a job. As one may have expected, the data show that females were more reluctant to break off the ties of their families and friends than were the males.

These indices of low achievement motivations take on special significance since non-whites who desire to pursue vocations in which traditionally they have not been employed often are compelled to leave their home areas. It is logical to assume, too, that these achievement motivational characteristics are or will be reflected in the vocational selections of the students [*10*].

Deferment of Gratification Pattern

Successful realization of a future goal frequently requires one to postpone certain satisfactions. As put by Ginzberg [*2*], "One of his major challenges is the necessity to postpone current gratifications in order to work effectively toward the realization of major objectives."

There is enough research data to warrant the belief that there is an association between the willingness to make sacrifices in the interest of achieving a major objective and high achievement motivation.

Apparently the students in this study had strong views about postponing freedom of expression on racial, religious, and political views. Only 21.4 per cent of the students checked that "Keeping quiet about religious views would not stop me"; whereas 34.7 per cent indicated that keeping quiet on political views would not stop them from getting the job. Interestingly, slightly less than one-third, 29.5 per cent, would not be stopped from getting a job if they were denied the opportunity of expressing themselves on racial views.

Contrary to what may have been expected in view of their class origin, almost three-fourths, 71.3 per cent, of the students were willing to defer the satisfaction of owning an automobile. On the other hand, it appears that the students had strong feelings against postponement of marriage as evidenced by the fact that only approximately one-third indicated that deferment of marriage would not stop them.

Relative to taking a part-time job that would require sacrificing the interest of engaging in social activities, 45.9 per cent of the students would not let this condition prevent them from getting the job.

Dependence on Parents

It was stated at the outset that achievement motivation is a function of experience. Parents who encourage their children to exercise independence, to compete with standards of excellence, and to acquire self-confidence tend to produce children with high achievement motives; parents who are very solicitous, make decisions for their children, and require conformity to family attitudes and wishes tend to produce children with low achievement motivation.

As shown in TABLE 1, the subjects are not willing to oppose the wishes of their parents in accepting a job. Interestingly, only 14.7 per cent indicated that their father's disapproval would not serve as a deterrent to getting a job. Fewer, 7.1 per cent, indicated that they would disregard the mother's lack of approval. It is shown, too, that the females were less inclined to disregard the lack of parental approval than were the males.

The apparent dependency on the approval of parents who have a limited knowledge of the broadening economic opportunities in America leads one to suspect that these youth will select and prepare for those vocations in which Negroes traditionally have been employed. This points up the difficulty of the challenge of preparing Negro youth for new employment opportunities. As suggested by Ginzberg [*2*], there is a need for changing the attitudes and values of parents, teachers, and the Negro community regarding preparation for work.

That this task can be accomplished is verified by the findings of Jacob in his study of changing values:

> . . . a look at whole colleges rather than just a selection of courses, or other educational in-

TABLE 2

Significance of Differences in Proportions of Subjects Responding to Similar Items in the College Freshman and Reissman Samples

Condition	*College Freshmen* (N = 716)	*Reissman's Sample* (N = 254)	C.R.*	P
You will have to leave your home town	0.538	0.346	5.43	0.01
Leave your friends	0.579	0.398	5.13	0.01
Leave your parents	0.200	0.110	3.33	0.01
Keep quiet about religious views	0.214	0.508	4.74	0.01
Keep quiet about political views	0.347	0.508	4.74	0.01
Will endanger your health	0.220	0.590	3.08	0.01

* The formula for the significance of differences among uncorrelated proportions was taken from *Fundamental Statistics in Psychology and Education* by J. P. Guilford.

fluences in isolation, reveals that sometimes a combination of factors can produce a distinctive institutional atmosphere, a "climate of values," in which students are decisively influenced [*4, p. 99*].

Since, as mentioned earlier, the scale in this study contained several items that were similar to those used in Reissman's study of aspirational levels, it is interesting to compare findings. Reissman's [7] subjects were white, male, native-born adults consisting of three groups—a random selection of household heads in Evanston, Illinois, policemen enrolled in a technical high school, and members of a Junior Chamber of Commerce. There were indications of stronger family ties among the subjects in Reissman's sample and there were noticeable differences in the attitudes toward keeping quiet about religious and political views. It is shown in TABLE 2 that the differences in the responses of the two samples are significant. These differences very likely were influenced by such factors as age, family responsibilities, geographical origin, and the differences in the wording of the first and third items, which in Reissman's scale read: "Leave your community" and "Leave your family for some time."

Conclusions

In conclusion, on the basis of the empirical generalizations on the origin of achievement motivation and on conditions which influence changes in values and attitudes, it seems that the educational climate for youth with characteristics similar to those that were included in this study should (1) stress independence of action and competition with standards of excellence in performance, (2) provide for a re-orientation of outlook through experience that would help the students to understand themselves and the realities of the world around them, and (3) provide opportunities for the students to discover and develop their potentialities.

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Research on the Teaching of Occupations 1956–1958

DANIEL SINICK and ROBERT HOPPOCK

THIS IS the fifth in a series of reviews of research on the teaching of occupations. Previous reviews will be found in Hoppock's *Occupational Information* [*14*] and in the November, 1953, October, 1954, and November, 1956, issues of this *Journal*. The present article describes research reported in doctoral dissertations, masters' theses, and other professional literature during the calendar years of 1956, 1957, and 1958, together with earlier research not previously reviewed.

Summary

For the convenience of readers concerned with the teaching of occupations at particular levels, the researches are arranged in order, from elementary school to college. Experimental studies within each category are reported first.

Of the two experiments at the elementary school level, one [*2*]—conducted in France—indicated that four sessions of both lectures and films on 40 occupations yielded significant gains in information and in realism of choice; the other [*8*] found that the reading of three books of fiction on occupations improved knowledge and attitudes. Of three surveys [*4, 20, 25*] of current practice, one [*20*] also obtained teachers' suggestions for changes.

Although there were no experiments at the junior high school level, there were four surveys [*1, 7, 10, 27*] of current practice and one study [*22*] of the relative importance of various practices to boys, girls, teachers, and parents.

Three experiments were conducted at the secondary level. One [*26*] found that an eight-week occupations course produced significantly greater certainty regarding first choice of a vocation, greater tolerance toward least preferred vocations, and more changes in measured interests. The other two experiments [*5, 17*] followed up students exposed to different practices; the findings of both favored the experimental groups in terms of ultimate criteria. Nine secondary school studies [*3, 6, 11–13, 18, 19, 21, 23*] surveyed current practice and two [*16, 28*] obtained ratings of the relative value of various practices.

At the college level, where there were no experiments, there were three surveys [*9, 15, 24*] of current practice.

Elementary Schools

Bacquet, *et al* [*2*], conducted an experiment in France for the National Institute of Vocational Guidance involving 124 boys aged 13 to 14 in their last year of elementary school in Paris. An experimental group of 67 was exposed for four two-hour sessions held during four successive weeks to lectures and films on 40 trades. A control group of 57 was not so exposed. One month later all 124 indicated on a list of 60 occupations, including the 40 trades, those about which they had no knowledge. A significantly greater number of the control group indicated ignorance of the 40 trades; there was no significant difference for the other 20 occupations. On the same list, all 124 also marked those occupations at which they would like to work. On the basis of these choices, the 40 trades were divided into three categories: the 12 most frequently chosen, the 12 least frequently chosen, and the middle 16. The experimental group chose significantly fewer of the top 12 and significantly more of the

DANIEL SINICK is Associate Professor in the Rehabilitation Counseling Curriculum, San Francisco State College, San Francisco, California, and ROBERT HOPPOCK is Professor of Education at New York University, New York City.

other two categories; again there was no significant difference for the other 20 occupations.

Feltman's [8] experiment in five Illinois schools over a six-week period had 22 eighth-grade girls each read three books of fiction with vocational themes. A control group of 32 girls "of comparable age, grade, mental ability, scholastic achievement, personality adjustment, and socio-economic status" read whatever they chose. Pre-tests and post-tests of occupational information revealed that the experimental group had achieved "increases in knowledge of the occupational details of the work depicted." An inventory of attitudes toward various workers, administered before and after the experimental period, indicated that significantly more in the experimental group changed their ratings of the workers described in the books. Interviews with the 22 girls "produced evidence which showed that a few of the girls had changed their choice of life career" as a result of the readings.

Munson [20] gathered questionnaire responses from 32 teachers of grades four, five, and six in five New York State schools. Methods most commonly used to teach about occupations were found to be reading and discussion in all three grades and, in addition, pictures, films and film strips, and projects in grade four. Eighteen of the teachers expressed the need for more occupational materials in these grades, "materials less technical in nature, having more and better illustrations and imparting direct, rather than general or incidental, occupational information. They most frequently suggested such teaching aids in the form of films, filmstrips, stories, pictures, charts, and booklets."

Boyd's [4] responses from 184 elementary school teachers in 10 Wyoming communities revealed that the following practices were used by the indicated percentages: illustrations, exhibits, film strips, and motion pictures to acquaint children with world of work, 86 per cent; learning units to help develop habits of neatness, promptness, and finishing tasks as requirements for jobs, 76 per cent; learning units to develop cooperation, friendliness, and tolerance as requirements for jobs, 74 per cent; trips to local businesses and industries to observe workers on the job, 56 per cent; learning units to help children become acquainted with occupations of fathers of children in classroom, 54 per cent; learning units to help children become acquainted with work of faculty and non-teaching personnel of school, 47 per cent.

Tiro [25] gathered questionnaire responses from the principals of 66 elementary schools in eight states in different parts of the country. He found the following practices to be in use by the indicated numbers of schools: films and film strips, 33; visits to business and industry, 30; homeroom programs, 28; assembly programs, 24; occupations units, 22; club programs, 21; exhibits, 21; posters and charts, 17; file of occupational books and pamphlets, 16; referral to community persons or agencies, 16; studies of local labor conditions and occupational opportunities, 9; career day or week, 7.

Junior High Schools

With no experimental research at this level, data indicating the relative use of various practices are presented in this order: name of investigator, source of data, and practices in rank order, each practice followed by percentage.

Allen [1]: interviews with guidance personnel of 31 commissioned intermediate schools (grades seven and eight) in Indiana; audio-visual materials, 84; outside speakers, 68; information through regular classes and clubs, 61; career days, 19.

Dustman [7]: questionnaire responses from administrators of 104 Illinois junior high schools; unit in a subject-matter course, 48.1; part of homeroom program, 39.3; included in a special guidance course, 13.4.

Ford [10]: questionnaire responses from principals of 26 Connecticut junior high schools; interviews with workers, 39; visits to business and industry, 31; credit for work experience, 27.

Wogaman [27]: interviews with guidance directors of 18 Ohio junior high schools with enrollments from 500 to 1,000; audio-visual aids, 66; information through regular classes or clubs, 55; individual conferences,

33; career days, 5. Half of the schools had either courses or units in occupations, 90 per cent of these schools requiring units in occupations in grade nine (56 per cent) or grade eight (34 per cent) and 10 per cent offering an elective occupations course in grade nine.

Romans [22] obtained checklist responses from 4,069 boys and 4,056 girls in the eighth and ninth grades of a number (not given) of Colorado junior high schools of various sizes, from 126 Colorado junior high school teachers, and from 170 parents of junior high school pupils in the Denver metropolitan area. TABLE 1 lists relevant findings.

Secondary Schools

Some of the schools in this category, of course, overlap the earlier categories. Gibson's [12] non-experimental study is mentioned first because it included both secondary and elementary schools; questionnaire responses from the 268 West Virginia schools (no breakdown is given) revealed that 24 per cent offered a course in occupations.

Walker [26] taught a course in occupations and self-appraisal to 122 students in a high school for girls in San Antonio, Texas. This experimental group, about equally distributed through all four grades, was equated with a control group on age, grade, intelligence, and socio-economic background. For eight weeks, five days a week, 40 minutes a day, the experimental group was exposed to 20 films on occupations, teacher lectures, class discussion, and group plus individual interpretation of test results. Occupational reading and interviews with workers were optional.

Before and after the experimental period, both groups took the Kuder Preference Record, a scale of attitudes toward vocations, and a questionnaire asking for the three vocations most preferred as a possible future career, the three least preferred, and the degree of certainty regarding the first choice. Significantly more of the experimental group changed their first, second, and third choices, and gained in certainty of first choice. The experimental group's attitudes toward their least preferred vocations improved, while the control group's became worse. More of the experimental group changed in Kuder interests.

Student reaction to the course was obtained through another questionnaire. The course "should become a part of the regular curriculum," said 97.6 per cent. It would be most helpful in the ninth grade, said 30.3 per cent; in the twelfth, 26.3 per cent; the tenth, 22.9 per cent; the eleventh, 20.5 per cent. The best way to learn about occupations, said 88.6 per cent, is through a

TABLE 1

Occupational Items Checked as Being of "Interest and Importance" by Colorado Junior High School Groups
(In percentages)

Occupational Items	*4,069 Boys*	*4,056 Girls*	*126 Teachers*	*170 Parents*
Getting a job for the summer	67.4	71.0	63.1	55.9
How to find a part-time job	52.8	50.3	41.2	59.4
Learning what you like to do	48.6	51.8	57.1	71.8
Tours and visits to places of work	36.5	39.6	55.9	46.5
How to discover your interests and abilities	33.4	42.5	76.2	55.6
See films on various occupations	36.7	30.3	51.6	42.5
Individual study of a few occupations	31.3	30.5	49.2	44.3
Have a short course on occupations	30.9	30.5	59.9	45.9
Exploring occupations in general	24.3	21.4	44.4	34.0
Read stories about successful men and women	21.0	22.4	36.9	30.1
Study "success factors" in certain occupations	22.6	18.1	32.9	27.9
Make a personal career scrapbook	15.7	23.8	17.9	20.4

separate class rather than a special unit in another class; 52.5 per cent preferred a course at least one semester in length. The methods used in the course to obtain occupational information ranked as follows in regard to both helpfulness and interest: films, interviewing people, reading career books, lecture by instructor, class discussion. Suggestions for improvement of the course were offered in the following order of frequency: longer class periods to allow more time for class discussion, guest speakers, job visitation, more films, more lectures by the instructor, more tests for self-appraisal, and smaller class groups.

Kutner [*17*] conducted an experiment with two successive twelfth-grade classes at the Technical and Vocational High School of Paterson, New Jersey. He randomly divided a January graduating class of 47 students into an experimental and a control group, and a June class of 73 into one experimental and two control groups. The first experimental group was taken on 10 occupational field trips, the second group on eight trips; the control groups took no trips. Follow-ups one year after graduation employed five criteria: job satisfaction, weekly wages, number of jobs held, number of weeks employed, and employer ratings. The findings, while generally favoring the experimental groups, were not statistically significant. Significant, however, is Kutner's use of ultimate criteria rather than intermediate ones like information acquired.

Cuony and Hoppock [*5*] report a follow-up five years after an experimental group of high school seniors had taken a course in job finding and job orientation. As compared with an equated control group, those who had had the course were better satisfied with their jobs, suffered less unemployment, and earned more money.

Data indicating the relative use of various practices at the secondary level are presented in this order: name of investigator, source of data, and practices in rank order, each practice followed by applicable number or percentage.

Berkley [*3*]: interviews with principals and guidance personnel of 13 Michigan secondary schools; occupational information file, 13; occupations units in regular subjects, 11; industrial visits, 4; posters and bulletins, 4; assembly programs, 3; career conference, 3; career day, 3; films and film strips, 3; guest speakers, 3; interviews with workers, 3; occupations class required in junior high school, 2.

Daly [*6*]: questionnaire and interviews with principals of 40 Catholic high schools in Archdiocese of Newark, New Jersey; library facilities, bulletin board, posters, each 97.5 per cent; assembly programs, 95 per cent; guest speakers, 95 per cent; classroom subject matter, 90 per cent; visual aids, 90 per cent; field trips, 77.5 per cent; career day, 75 per cent; occupations course, 10 per cent.

Fuller [*11*]: questionnaire responses from 58 white public high schools in North Carolina; (order only, no definite figures given:) occupational file, audio-visual aids, information through homeroom, occupations unit, industrial visits, career day, local community survey, interviews with workers, information through regular classes, occupations course. The occupations course was "usually offered in the twelfth grade and usually elective."

Lea [*18*]: interviews with principals or guidance personnel of 12 Tennessee public senior high schools; field trips, 8; career days, 3.

Moser [*19*]: questionnaire responses from principals or counselors of 286 Texas high schools; occupational file, 60.5 per cent; group programs on vocations, 51.8 per cent; career days off campus, 51.1 per cent; career days on campus, 27.6 per cent. "With few exceptions, the percentages of engagement in these activities increase with the size of the school."

Nugent [*21*]: interviews with counselors and principals of 32 white public high schools in Louisiana; occupational information file, 71.9 per cent; posters and exhibits, 56.2 per cent; occupations units, 43.8 per cent; assemblies, 37.5 per cent; career days, 25.0 per cent.

Harris [*13*], who interviewed personnel in 106 private secondary schools in New York State, summarized in this *Journal*[1] the prac-

[1] 1957, *35*, 592–593.

tices he found being used in teaching occupational information to business students.

Stevens and Hoppock [*23*], from a survey of over 250 secondary schools, found trends toward the use of certified counselors as teachers of occupations courses, the provision of such courses for prospective dropouts, the inclusion of self-appraisal, labor legislation, job finding, and the use of plant tours, follow-up, and other direct contact with workers.

Keppers' [*16*] questionnaire responses from 226 secondary school guidance administrators, 56 counselor trainers, and 16 state guidance supervisors yielded a rank order of practices in rated importance (figures not given): library of occupational information, units in regular courses, visits to places of work, occupations course, exhibits, community surveys, special units such as short courses, special events such as career days, occupational information an integral part of regular courses, work experience program.

Wright's study [*28*], reported in this *Journal*,[2] obtained the opinions of 164 Illinois high school teachers of occupations courses or units and 19 "authorities in the field" regarding the relative value not only of various practices and different course content but also of possible objectives to be attained through the teaching of occupations.

Colleges

This advanced level is represented by few studies and no experiments. Jansen's [*15*] questionnaire returns from 68 Catholic four-year colleges for men indicated that guest speakers were used by 46, career days by 24, and lectures or discussions about occupations by 18.

Fleming [*9*] used a checklist and interviews with the administrators of 22 Catholic colleges for men in the Middle Atlantic area. He found the following practices employed by the indicated percentages of schools: library of occupational information, 90.9; reading lists on vocations, 63.6; lectures on careers by industrial representatives, 59.1; notices of increasing supply and demand of occupations, 54.5; vocational implications of subject matter, 50.0; special bulletins, 40.9; interviews with those engaged in occupations, 36.4; courses on occupational information, 9.1.

Stevens' and Hoppock's [*24*] description of careers courses offered by 11 colleges indicates, among other things, that six of the 11 courses are required of all students and three others are required of particular students.

Suggestions for Future Research

To stimulate experimental research, the following suggestions are offered. Studies could be made regarding the relative effectiveness of an occupations course, or of a single technique, at different educational levels, of different techniques or combinations of techniques, of a required and an elective occupations course, of a course for both boys and girls and separate courses, of the study of the same occupations by all and particular ones by special interest groups. An occupations course could be compared in effectiveness with occupations units in other courses, vocational implications in other courses, information through the homeroom, or a job-finding course. Attitudes toward local occupations, as well as information about them, could be measured before and after an occupations course. Changes in realism of vocational choice could be similarly measured.

A control group should be used where appropriate, so that effects of the experimental factor may be properly evaluated. If possible, sufficient time should be allowed for differential effects to be revealed. The persisting effects are the ones of greatest importance to the students concerned. "What we call results," said Emerson, "are beginnings." Immediate or intermediate results are a good start, but we must move toward ultimate criteria like those in the Cuony and Kutner studies.

[2] 1956, *35*, 30-33.

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Letters

from our readers

Less Leisure in the Future?

To the Editor:

Although most people may work fewer hours each week in the future, this will not apply to professionals. Whatever employers may require, to function at the professional level will become increasingly difficult. Increasing complexity and sheer quantity of knowledge and skills in each specialty makes this seemingly inevitable.

The breaking down of knowledge into specialties has gone far enough. If anything, the ground to be covered by each specialist will be broader rather than narrower in scope.

The entrance of new segments of the human race into professional endeavor is another factor in this picture. Can the American specialist ignore the products of his counterpart in each of many other countries? If he is to keep up with what is being done around the world, can he depend on abstracts and translations? If not, then he will have to engage in a tremendous amount of foreign language study.

As his work becomes more difficult yet important, he will have more helpers. This calls for supervisory abilities and they in turn call for new types of knowledge and skills to be developed and kept up to date.

How can the professional of the future hope to have a shorter work week along with the work force in general?

JAMES W. RUSSELL
Counseling Psychologist
Northwestern University
Chicago, Illinois

Faculty Status—a Motive for Teaching?

To the Editor:

How often do student personnel administrators determine on the basis of the following criteria whether they will teach: the advantages of faculty rank and tenure, respect from the academic community, and opportunities to get better acquainted with students. Whether these are the criteria actually used is open to question, but the general concensus of those writing on student personnel administration leads one to believe they are.

The question then arises whether these criteria are consistent with the student personnel point of view which is traditionally student-centered. Is the person interested in faculty tenure and rank, respect from the academic community, and acquaintance with students as they affect the intellectual development of the students he will be teaching or as they affect his own welfare? If one teaches for the above advantages, is one not using the classroom for one's own ends instead of teaching for the love of teaching? Or on the other hand, is one being fair to the academic discipline if one uses it as a springboard to faculty status? If one teaches just to be teaching could one's administrative duties not easily encroach upon time needed for preparation? Those relying upon the above criteria to determine whether they will teach are in danger of expressing a self-centered philosophy which undermines the intellectual development of students.

There is, however, another reason why student personnel administrators may teach. They have a deep interest in sharing with students the pursuit of truth in an academic discipline. Only when scholarship and the intellectual development of the students have priority should a student personnel administrator give a portion of his time to the classroom. Teaching for this reason will result in faculty tenure and rank, respect from the academic community, and acquaintance with students—these must be outcomes rather than purposes if student personnel administrators are to remain consistent with what has been the goal of their chosen field; otherwise the intellectual development of the students and the academic discipline will suffer at the hands of one who, for his own purposes, uses teaching as a means of professional advancement.

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Books Reviewed

reviews of recent publications . . . by various authors

EVALUATING PUPIL GROWTH, by J. Stanley Ahmann & Marvin D. Glock. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1958. xiii + 605 pp. $6.95.

THE FOUR parts of this book cover successively evaluation in education (79 pages), characteristics of good evaluation instruments (101 pages), informal methods of evaluating achievement (166 pages), and evaluating pupil behavior and improving learning (222 pages). Two outstanding features of the book are the well-selected and well-annotated list of suggested readings at the end of each chapter and the excellent digesting of main ideas in the chapter summaries. Appendices contain lists of publishers and distributors of standardized evaluation instruments and selected lists of standardized tests.

The book may be considered as a summary of current knowledge about evaluation. The authors tread a well-beaten path and they do it in very thorough fashion. If a student can master the usual discussions of validity, reliability, and norms he will be well prepared to examine test manuals. It is unfortunate, however, that the authors did not apply the standards they had set up in earlier chapters to their discussion of particular tests. They follow a common pattern of those who review and write about tests, inventories, and rating scales when they indicate limitations so serious that the instruments could not be used meaningfully but end up by endorsing them explicitly or by implication. The student is not made aware of the great gap that exists between theory and application in the testing movement.

Evaluating Pupil Growth is intended for use in a one-term college course for students in training for teaching at the undergraduate and graduate levels. It is not intended for the theorist. An attempt has been made to make the treatment such that teachers can make practical use of it in their classrooms. In order to reach this goal the authors have introduced simple statistical procedures at appropriate places throughout the book and have provided illustrative material on test items, cumulative records, and devices that are commonly used for evaluation and diagnosis in the area of personal-social adjustment. Despite these attractions and the lively introduction to each of the chapters, students who are beginners in the field may find the going difficult. The thorough, scholarly, and lengthy treatment is not likely to be mastered by undergraduates in one semester.

This book is a fine contribution to educational literature. If balanced with a heavy dose of the cynicism that critical examination of evaluation instruments should produce, the reader will be well prepared to approach the difficult processes of evaluating pupil growth.—JOHN W. M. ROTHNEY, *Professor of Education, The University of Wisconsin.*

THE COLLEGE INFLUENCE ON STUDENT CHARACTER, by Edward Eddy, Jr. Washington, D. C.: The American Council on Education, 1959. 186 pp. $3.00.

THE CENTRAL message of *The College Influence on Student Character*—namely, that in the higher education process there must be development of both intellect and character—that "to skill must be added wisdom"—is not new. Thoughtful men have always recognized that along with competence in the performance of a task must also be "intelligent direction and purposeful control of conduct by definite moral principles," the author's definition of character.

The methodology of this effort, however, is somewhat different, giving the work a freshness and a dimension of reality. This is no "armchair report" of what one educator believes, but rather a report of what students themselves are thinking and saying. The findings are the result of visits (extending over a period of one year) by the author and his two assistants to 20 American colleges and universities. Liter-

ally thousands, through their comments, have contributed to the volume.

The College Influence on Student Character is largely a report of impressions and the limitations of such must be recognized by the reader. The data in this volume are, to a large extent, of a subjective nature. The sampling of colleges and of students was of necessity small. The validity of some of the data may rightfully be challenged. Despite these limitations, however, this volume is one of real significance in American higher education today. It can be a valuable guide to all who share in the higher education process. It can be read profitably and studied by students, teachers, and administrators alike. This in itself is a distinguishing quality of the book and serves to set it apart from the many volumes which are designed to serve but a single audience.

From the student standpoint, the book has special meaning, for the student literally "speaks his mind" in this report. Instead of a statement of what the writer *believes* to be the thinking of present-day college students, there is presented directly the thoughts and the beliefs of students. Student readers can't help but be encouraged by the direct involvement of their fellow students in the production of this effort.

For the teacher there is much to be gained in the study of *The College Influence on Student Character*. The central role of the teacher is emphasized repeatedly, and this is most encouraging. (It also serves to "prod" and to underscore the need to constantly improve teaching efforts!) Certainly for all teachers there is given anew, with unmistakable clarity, the charge that together with devotion to intellectual excellence must also go concern for the development of sound student character. For the teacher to concern himself with subject matter alone is not enough. The shaping of attitudes and values goes on as well as a part of the learning process, and the teacher has a responsibility to see that students are encouraged to develop character attributes which will serve them well.

The college administrator will, in particular, gain pleasure and assistance in the study of Dr. Eddy's volume. Combining information and appreciations gained from his own broad experience as an educator with the data gathered from the campuses

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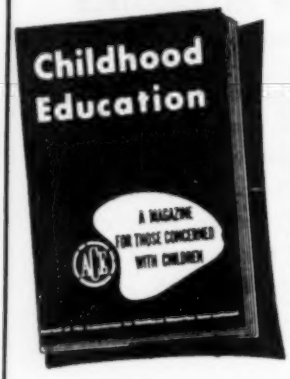

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The College Influence on Student Character is a most exciting and challenging work—a volume which not only should be in the library of all educators, but one to which frequent reference can profitably be made.— ROBERT B. KAMM, *Dean, College of Arts and Sciences, The Oklahoma State University.*

ADOLESCENCE AND THE CONFLICT OF GENERATIONS, by Gerald H. J. Pearson, M.D. New York: W. W. Norton & Company, Inc., 1958. 186 pp. $3.95.

AS A WELL-KNOWN specialist in child psychiatry (presently Dean of the Philadelphia Association for Psycho-Analysis) and author, Dr. Pearson is well qualified to theorize on the conflicts which are brought about by lack of understanding between the generations—adolescents and adults. He suggests in the book's preface that it "is an attempt to present in as simple a form as possible some of the knowledge about adolescence gained from psycho-analytic research." The book was written for students of various medical and psychological disciplines, and, in addition, the author hopes it will be read by parents and adolescents for the benefit they may derive from it. However, there may be many who will agree with this reviewer that if the book were read by adolescents, it could be disturbing, if indeed it could be understood.

The school personnel worker will find this volume interesting reading, for it is a restatement of the psychoanalytic theory of personality—a kind of primer of psycho-sexual development bringing into play the author's opinions, beliefs, and a number of brief case descriptions relating to problems of growing up. These opinions and beliefs, strongly flavored with the analyst's approach to inter- and intra-psychic conflicts, will cause many school counselors to challenge them, as well as the framework upon which the counselor's own personal concepts have been built.

Dr. Pearson, it appears, has gone back to Ernest Jones' 1923 *The Fantasy of the Reversal of Generations,* from which he offers the thesis for his approach to the adolescents' problems with adult figures. He stresses the point that although conflict be-

tween generations is ever present, hostility is very marked in the youth, and toward the end of the Oedipus situation retaliatory fantasies are repressed into the unconscious. They are reactivated from a kind of dormant state whenever enough energy is supplied as a result of external or internal frustrations. In discussing "The Problems of Adolescence," Chapter I, numerous types of adolescent behavior not understood by adults are seen as causes of conflict. Other major conflicts throughout the book include pressure for social conformity, effect of instinctual drives, demand for personal flexibility, rebellious adolescent group attitudes, guilt feelings brought on by object relationships, severance of infantile ties from parents, struggle for personal identity, and prolongation of adolescence.

Counselors and teachers will find the discussion on "The Adolescent's Search for a Personal Identity" in Chapter V stimulating, as they will other topics of concern to them in their understanding of youth. However, the lack of research evidence throughout the book will be disappointing to the discerning reader. At many points, this reviewer got the impression that solution of the adolescent's problems brought about by the conflicts could only be left to fate. Parents are advised about hostilities, hate, jealousy, envy, etc., but little attention is given to acceptance, respect, understanding, and love.

In Chapter IX, "Conclusions," the author contradicts much of what he has written in previous chapters. He "advises" adolescents. "To the Adolescent who reads this book," he states on page 172, "there are undoubtedly certain sections which you have not been able to understand as you read them." This is the greatest understatement of the volume, for the particular psychological vocabulary employed and the varying connotations which are put to the same terms in different instances will challenge the good lay adult reader. The bright adolescent reader may find the plot interesting and be intrigued with its main character. But he will shake his head in disbelief as the ugly figure of Oedipus appears to cause more problems than the villainous animal of a horror movie.—DEAN L. HUMMEL, *State Supervisor of Guidance Services, Ohio State Department of Education.*

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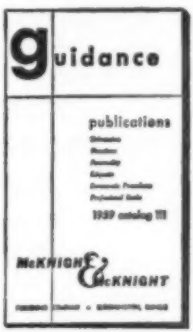

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IN SEARCH OF IDENTITY: THE JAPANESE OVERSEAS SCHOLAR IN AMERICA AND JAPAN, by John W. Bennett, Herbert Passin, & Robert K. McKnight. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1958. x + 369 pp. $7.50.

"EDUCATED JAPANESE have been faced with a basic ideological problem emerging out of their country's modernization program. They have had to declare themselves on the great issues involved in their nation's planning: West versus Orient, democracy opposed to autocracy, individualism versus collectivism. To the individual this ideological debate became a search for identity, and it is this problem, the search for identity, that forms the background of this book."

This is one of a series of research studies sponsored by the Committee on Cross-Cultural Education of the Social Science Research Council. The study is not concerned with the nature of their educational program as such but with the social and psychological effects of this foreign educational experience. However, the student personnel worker who is interested in an evaluation of the suitability of the American student personnel program for foreign students will find a particularly perceptive discussion in Appendix C on "Guidance of the Visitor."

Part One of the book is devoted to a review of the historical background of the situation, with particular emphasis on the effect of the history of Japan and of the kinds of students going abroad. Part Two is devoted to a study of Japanese students attending American Universities between the two world wars (three chapters), to a study of recent, post-war students (three chapters) and to Japanese women educated in America (one chapter). Part Three further analyzes the implications of these findings, *e.g.*, patterns of intercultural experience, social norms, intercultural education, and social change (three chapters). Appendices analyze the educational history of persons listed in a Japanese *Who's Who* volume, the methodology used in the study of students in America, and the already noted "Observations on Guidance of the Visitor."

The major part of the study is based on results from interviewing 50 Japanese who

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had once studied in America and returned to Japan; some of these had studied in America between the wars and others since the last war. Additional data were obtained from biographies of 100 additional returnees, but the main source of information was from the interviewees. A second aspect of the study was concerned with an intensive study (interviewing and psychological testing) of 23 Japanese students enrolled at one large American university; a much less extensive study (only questionnaires and tests used) was also carried out with 22 Japanese students at another American university. The authors point out that their samples of Japanese students may not be typical of those who have done educational work in America, but they believe that their findings help illuminate the factors affecting the "success" (acceptance and advancement) of these students on their return to Japan.

The main findings of the study indicate that "success" is dependent on several factors, most of which have nothing to do with the nature of the American education: (1) The cultural and political developments in Japan. For instance, early students abroad were highly successful because of the early need for technical knowledge, but later on Japanese universities were considered equal or superior in many fields. Also, during World War II those who had studied in America might be suspect, but during the Occupation these same individuals obtained rapid advancement because they were considered most familiar with democratic institutions and ways. (2) Undergraduate attendance at a major Japanese university with foreign graduate study was better than undergraduate and graduate study in America because important friendships and connections must be made during the undergraduate years. (3) In certain periods the Japanese students who attended abroad were usually those unable to get into a major Japanese university and so were not as able nor as well-connected as those studying in Japan. (4) Many Japanese in revolt against Japanese customs and institutions studied abroad and on their return were considered radical and so were less effective in Japanese developments. (5) Those who studied abroad briefly tended to change less and to maintain strong home contacts and so were more readily acclimated on their return.

STANDARD HANDBOOKS AND STUDIES IN PERSONNEL, OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION, SCHOLARSHIPS, EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

National Register of Scholarships and Fellowships. 1959. 3rd Ed.	
Vol. 1. Register of Scholarships and Loans	13.00
Vol. 2. Register of Fellowships and Grants	12.00
Modern Vocational Trends Handbook. 1959–60. 5th Ed.	12.50
Career Monographs—62 titles. Paperbound. Not billed for less than 4	each 1.25
Angel's National Directory of Personnel Managers. 4th Ed.	20.00
Employment Service Handbook. 2nd Ed.	15.00
National and International Employment Handbook for Specialized Personnel. 1959–60	12.50
Looking for Employment in Foreign Countries. 4th Ed. J. L. Angel. 1959	7.00
Why and How to Prepare an Effective Job Resume. 2nd Ed. 1956	7.00

WORLD TRADE ACADEMY PRESS, INC.
50 EAST 42ND STREET NEW YORK 17, N. Y.

This study contributes helpfully to an understanding of how study in our universities affects Japanese students as they return to their own country. While the book describes the nature of the samples and indicates that these individuals were interviewed and sometimes tested, it basically consists of a series of conclusions with illustrations. The interested research worker is frustrated if he wants information as to how the interviews were actually carried out, what the basic data were, and how they were classified. He will also be bothered by an apparent grouping of these students into a few definite personality types, *i.e.*, idealists, adjustors, or constrictors. The authors are capable social scientists and their conclusions seem reasonable, but some readers might like more data from which to work out additional implications.—F. P. Robinson, *Professor of Psychology, The Ohio State University.*

EXISTENTIALISM AND EDUCATION, by George F. Kneller. New York: Philosophical Library, 1958. 165 pp. $3.75.

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THE MOST crucial question of our day, Professor George F. Kneller of the University of California at Los Angeles points out, is whether man conquers the forces of de-personalization or whether these forces conquer him. Modern education has become the victim of the society that nurtures it. Social acceptance has been over-emphasized as an educational goal and group processes have been over-stressed as teaching techniques. The individual is gradually being lost in an age of social conformity. Someone must call attention to what is happening and, if possible, reverse the trend.

Professor Kneller believes that the existentialists have been more conscious of the plight of modern man than any other group in Western culture. The purpose of his book is to make the observations, the arguments, and the conclusions of the existentialist thinkers available in non-technical language to educators and interested laymen. The existentialists whose writings were used most extensively by Professor Kneller are those of Martin Heidegger, Karl Jaspers, Soren Kierkegaard, Gabriel Marcel, and Jean-Paul Sartre.

Existentialism is more behavioral and phenomenological than conceptual and rational. It does not add or detract from existing philosophies so much as it permeates them. If one asks the fundamental philosophical questions, the existentialist supplies answers that are mystical but quite familiar. What is reality? Reality is subjective experience, *existence*. What is truth? Truth is *authentic* existence. How is truth discovered? Truth is discovered through intuition. How is truth validated? Truth is validated by the values of its existence *to the individual*. What is the goal of philosophy? The goal of philosophy is to help man internalize experience and become his authentic self. The existentialists point out that education for adjustment, for happiness, for security is a delusion. The creations of human history have come from men of uneasy minds, men who yearned for fulfillment, men whose lives were a commitment.

To the existentialist, the highest educational goal is man's search for himself. The teacher is not merely a social-minded umpire, a resource person, or a model personality. Nor is the teacher an actor, for he wants no imitation. The effective teacher never forgets that his real purpose is to educate someone else. And the final test of teaching success is the student whose mind has been liberated, the student who has thought out truth afresh.

The personnel and guidance worker who reads *Existentialism and Education* will not soon forget the experience. While the struggle of the individual against de-personalization has long been a basic theme in guidance literature, the existentialists have attacked the problem from a different set of assumptions that those subscribed to by guidance workers. They challenge the behavioral, differential, quantitative psychology upon which guidance techniques have been based, and Professor Kneller has delivered the existentialist message with telling effect. The book is clear, the writing is crisp, and the train of thought is always easy to follow. Since this reviewer is not a trained philosopher, he cannot evaluate Professor Kneller's essay as a philosophical contribution; but he can guarantee the personnel and guidance worker who reads this volume a very disturbing but profitable experience.—GEORGE A. PIERSON, *Dean of Students, Queens College.*

LOOKING FOR EMPLOYMENT IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES, by Juvenal L. Angel. New York: World Trade Academy Press, 1959. 131 pp. $7.00.

THIS IS A fourth edition of a previously much used source book of information regarding some of the opportunities and difficulties in looking for employment in foreign countries. It has been substantially

enlarged and has become more practical.

In addition to information concerning where to look for employment, living conditions, information on work contracts, etc., important facts about labor legislation in foreign countries and a geographical distribution of leading firms doing business abroad (many offering unusual opportunities for employment) have been included. This source points out that 10,000 major United States manufacturers and distributors who carry on international business relations with other countries and essential United States Government representatives constitute an enormous field for executives, junior executives, technicians, and office personnel conversant with foreign languages and American training skills. More than 2,200 American firms operating in foreign countries are listed. A survey of employment possibilities in these firms is included.

The author, who is Director of Modern Vocational Trends Bureau, gives the reader the benefit of his years of practical experience in placing personnel in foreign countries.

The scientific approach to vocational choice is advocated and clearly outlined. The emphasis is upon obtaining the right position. Those who seek employment abroad are urged to work at a task for which they are well fitted, in a congenial atmosphere for an organization that will respect them, and where they can receive a salary commensurate with their abilities.

Stress is placed upon adequate preparation for a job and the necessity for a careful study and analysis of one's abilities and skills, plus a systematic campaign to locate congenial contacts. Information is included which explains how to make a personal inventory. The reader is also given a detailed description of how to prepare a personal occupational work-sheet. In addition, he is told how to fill out application blanks, what to do in an interview, and is acquainted with other points to consider when signing a contract for overseas employment.

This book contains a myriad of facts and outlines a step-by-step plan for securing the best foreign position for the individual concerned. It should be a must for individuals who actively seek employment abroad.—N. HARRY CAMP, JR., *Director, Psychiatric Clinic, Florida School for Boys.*

Two Important Guidance Texts

THE GUIDANCE FUNCTION IN EDUCATION

By *Percival W. Hutson.* A significant contribution to the field, this text presents the most reliable and useful knowledge available dealing with the guidance function. It defines the guidance function, and discusses in detail its several components and their direct bearing on one or more of the features of a guidance program.
680 pp., $6.00

THE WORK OF THE COUNSELOR

By *Leona E. Tyler.* This book emphasizes three principles: (1) counseling is a skill in perceiving and comprehending subtle psychological relationships; (2) the interview itself is the heart of the counseling process; (3) individual differences in counselors' methods and in clients' responses make every interview a unique experience.
323 pp., $3.75

Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc.
35 West 32nd Street *New York 1, N. Y.*

Publications . . . in brief

DONALD K. PUMROY

Record and Transcript Guide

An Adequate Permanent Record and Transcript Guide. Committee on Transcript Adequacy of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers. Robert E. Mahn, Chairman, Committee on Special Publications, AACRAO, Office of the Registrar, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio, 1959. 19 pp.

This pamphlet was prepared by the Committee on Transcript Adequacy of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers. Its purpose is to establish a systematic way of keeping the students' official educational records for colleges and universities so that they will serve more effectively both for officers of admissions, records, and registration and for state certification authorities.

The section entitled "The Permanent Record and the Transcript of Record" contains the essential items that should be maintained. These items are: identification of the institution, identification of the student, basis of admission, the record of work taken, termination status and verification of the record, institutional policies—pertinent regulations and definition terms, and general items which include legibility, clarity, and minimum size of transcript. A brief description of each of these items is given.

Also presented are statements about Transcript Evaluation, Forged Transcripts, and Transcripts for Teacher Licensing Needs. In the appendix is an abstract of a report entitled "The Recording and Reporting of Student Disciplinary Problems" which was developed jointly by AACRAO and several other interested organizations.

Rehabilitation Through Group Methods

Group Methods in Therapy, No. 284, J. D. Frank. Public Affairs Pamphlets, 22 E. 38th St., New York City, 1959. 28 pp. $.25.

This pamphlet presents the different ways in which group methods are used in the treatment of various problem areas. It is lucidly and interestingly written and contains several brief case histories to illustrate the points made. The author points out the tremendous growth in recent years of the group method and discusses some of the situations in which it is used, as well as the different disciplines that are using it. He mentions that the fact that more people can be treated at the same time is an advantage of the group method. Also an advantage is that frequently what is said by a group member about another has more influence than if it were said by a therapist in psychotherapy.

Some of the situations in which group methods have been used are presented, some in more detail than others. The group treatment method has been used in the rehabilitation of adolescent delinquents. An example of this work takes place at Highfields, a rehabilitation center in New Jersey for 16 and 17 year old boys. Group methods have also been used with individuals in mental hospitals, not only with individuals about to leave the hospitals but even with those more severely disturbed Alcoholics Anonymous and Recovery, Inc., are presented as other examples of the breadth of the group method.

In discussing the different situations that utilize group methods, the author also presents some of the various techniques that are involved, *e.g.,* round table discussions, psychodrama, free-interaction group, and the guided group.

Films for Educators

Educators Guide to Free Films, 19th ed., Mary F. Horkheimer & J. W. Diffor (Eds.). Educators Progress Service, Randolph, Wisconsin, 1959. 639 pp. $7.00.

This guide should prove of value to anyone interested in the use of a film for the classroom, lecture, or speech. There have been several additions and changes with this edition. Old films have been deleted (404) and new films have been added (614) so that the total number of films listed is 4,223. As an indication of how rapidly the use of films has grown, in 1941 there were only 671 titles listed and in 1951 only 2,121. This rapid growth is again reflected in the number of film sources available, which has increased by 16 from the last edition to a total of 625. Also new is an article by John Guy Fowlkes entitled "Audio Visual Media in School Improvement" which presents a brief history of the audio visual media as well as a discussion of the new National Defense Education Act in regard to procuring audio visual material.

In the main section of the guide the films are listed under broad categories such as: Accident Prevention and Safety, Aviation, School and Educational Opportunities, Science-General Science, Social Problems, and Transportation. Each film is listed alphabetically by title under the above mentioned categories. Besides the title, a description of the contents, size, whether sound or silent, date of release, running time, name of the distributor, and limitations on their distribution are presented. The films are also listed in two other ways. In the title index the films are presented alphabetically by title and in the subject index they are listed under less broad categories than in the main section. Also listed alphabetically are the names and addresses of their branch offices and the avail-

ability of the films. Included in the guide are the directions as well as a sample letter for the ordering of a film.

Developing Testing Programs

Let's Look at Our Testing Program. Guidance Series, Bureau of Educational Research, College of Education, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, 1959. 11 pp.

The purpose of this pamphlet is, as the title implies, to help in developing a testing program that is best suited for a particular school or schools. It presents briefly and clearly the steps that have to be taken and the problems that are apt to arise along the way.

The first step that is mentioned is the value of a testing program. This is stated in terms of four purposes: to improve the instructional program, to facilitate curriculum revision, for educational and vocational counseling, and to help the administrative staff appraise the educational program. The next step is that of determining the information desired from the tests, who will use the information, and how will they use it. The next problem is the selection of the tests themselves. Throughout the entire pamphlet, the importance of spade work and involving the staff is stressed time and again, particularly when the program is just being developed.

Some of the practical problems that arise in administering tests, as well as the common type of errors in interpreting test results, are presented. The importance of developing local norms is pointed out and the step-by-step procedure in determining percentiles is presented. There are also selected references on tests.

Educational Television

Teaching by Television. Ford Foundation, Office of Reports, 477 Madison Avenue, New York City, 1959. 87 pp.

This report points up the rapid expansion of teaching by television and presents in brief the many studies that have been conducted in this area. Also presented are the names and addresses of the individuals who have conducted such studies, the colleges and universities that have televised courses for credit, and the school districts (and schools) making regular use of televised instruction.

The rapid growth of teaching by television is shown by the fact that the first educational television station began six years ago, and there were 39 in operation and 12 under construction when th is report was written. Also, there are more than 150 closed circuit television installations in schools and colleges throughout the country and closed circuit television is being used in 21 military installations.

The primary focus of the studies that have been conducted has been on comparing the efficacy of teaching by television with teaching done in the regular classroom manner. The usual way the comparison has been made has been by some achievement measure of a subject that has been taught in the two different ways. With achievement as a yard stick, neither method stands out above the other. If any difference does exist it favors the teaching by television. It would seem that the best results are obtained when a team approach is used, *i.e.*, a studio teacher and a classroom teacher who work together.

Presented in more detail are the studies that have been conducted at universities and colleges, primarily those conducted at Pennsylvania State University. Also mentioned is the feasibility of televised teaching as well as an attempt to determine its cost as compared with regular teaching.

Another chapter sums up the work that has been done in the school and presents in more detail the experiments done in Washington County, Maryland. Also discussed is the development and findings of the National Program in the Use of Television in Public Schools.

Club LARBEREC

LARBEREC in Action, S. Franklin & S. Tremsky (Eds.). Federation of the Handicapped, 211 West 14th St., New York City, 1959. 23 pp.

This brochure tells about the inception and development of Club LARBEREC (cerebral spelled backwards). In the fall of 1953, a few cerebral palsied adults met at the Federation of the Handicapped in New York City to discuss cerebral palsy. In this discussion and in later discussions the individuals opened up and shared their feelings with others and realized that their problems and pent up feelings were not unique. More people were attracted to the group and in February, 1954, Club LARBEREC was founded. One of the purposes of the organization was to help the members participate in a better and richer social life. Many of the members had led a sheltered life and been "kept safe from harm," but by operating as a group more and more of the members developed social skills they had not used before. With the members becoming more active, they helped to dispel from the minds of their parents, friends, and the public in general the idea that the individual with cerebral palsy is so different from others. With time, the activities of the group expanded to where the members were going to off-Broadway shows, night clubs, attending lectures, and participating in sports. Group members took part in a panel discussion at Hunter College entitled "The Handicapped Help Themselves." The organization has grown strong and active since 1954 and there are now 35 members. One problem that stands out for a person with cerebral palsy is finding employment. The group discussion and activities of the club have given the members more confidence and skills so that more of them have jobs now than before.

The brochure, besides presenting the history and development of the club, consists of contributions of the members. Some of these contributions are poems and some are essays about the personal changes that have taken place because of Club LARBEREC.

Association Activities

Reports from divisions, officers, and committees of A.P.G.A.

A Proposed Code of Ethics for A.P.G.A.

The Executive Council has approved the publication of the Code of Ethics as developed by the Committee on the Preparation of Ethical Standards. The Committee does not intend this and the Executive Council does not authorize its publication with any sense of its being a final Code of Ethics. A Committee, headed by Dr. Seth Arsenian, has been appointed to study the Code of Ethics during the next several years. Your comments on it will be of great help in modifying the present Code and in eventually enabling APGA to bring out a finished Code in two or three years. The work that has been done already on this is very great and now the remaining work is in the hands of all members. Please be sure to communicate your comments to Dr. Arsenian at Springfield College, Springfield, Massachusetts.

Introduction

The personnel worker recognizes that his occupation is a profession.

In his relations with his client, the personnel worker is constantly aware that he has chosen to serve, and he respects the dignity of the individual human personality in all of his relationships with him.

In his relations with professional associates and other fellow workers, the personnel worker seeks to improve and protect the status of his profession and the quality of its services to the public.

Preface

In this proposed Code of Ethics, the term "personnel worker" has been used in its very broadest sense, to include all of those who work with others in counseling, guidance, evaluation, selection, recruiting, placement, and similar kinds of personnel activities.

In general, the individual who works with others is given a specific title which tends to reflect either the location of his employment or some specific aspect of it, rather than indicating a unique characteristic. (For example, the "school counselor," "employment interviewer," etc.)

Not all items, therefore, will necessarily relate to situations faced by all personnel workers. The Code is intended, however, to deal with the ethical concerns the personnel worker faces in dealing with the specific aspects of his own employment situation.

I. Definition of Responsibilities to the Client

1. The personnel worker or agency is free to limit services in any reasonable manner; *e.g.*, restriction of services to clientele of a community, an educational or a business organization, or to clienteles identified by age or grade levels, or to the types of problems or of services rendered. Nevertheless, within any restricted area of operation, clients must be handled alike regardless of race, creed, or color. (This paragraph does not apply to those programs of sectarian organizations specifically designed to aid their own members.)

2. The personnel worker will not discuss, present, or publish information concerning any client, or other person interviewed, outside his own organization, even within the profession, except subject to the following conditions:

a. The purpose of any such discussion or presentation shall be either to help solve the client's problems or to further significant training or professional functions; and

b. Information received from any person interviewed shall be treated as confidential, not to be disclosed to anyone outside the personnel worker's own organizations, unless: (1) The nature of the interview is such (*e.g.*, an employment interview) that the personnel worker's primary responsibility is clearly understood by all concerned to be to some agency other than the person interviewed; or (2) The client, or person interviewed, is informed in advance that data or other information collected will or may be transmitted to some specified personnel agency; or (3) The client requests or authorizes release to a specific agency or individual of information to be used in his

own interest; or (4) The client authorizes the release of case materials for publication or other professional presentation. In such cases, every effort must be made to omit or disguise any information that would identify the client; or (5) The person interviewed is a minor or other dependent person, in which case consent must be secured from a legally responsible person or agency; or (6) Existing canons of professional or legal responsibility to society or to the client require disclosure without the consent of the person interviewed.

c. The personnel worker's responsibility for preserving the confidential nature of information received from a client shall extend beyond the duration of his individual professional practice or of his employment in any organization.

3. The personnel worker will not guarantee resolution of the problem, but shall indicate only that he will use all of his resources in legitimate ways to aid the individual.

4. Fees should be reasonable and manner of payment should be discussed with the client prior to initiation of services, and should be revised only with the concurrence of the client.

5. At the point where it becomes clear that the client is not benefiting, and in the future is not likely to benefit, from the continuation of a professional relationship, the personnel worker will discontinue it.

6. Where referral of the client to other professional services is indicated and the client refuses to accept it, the personnel worker may elect to discontinue the relationship. In such cases, however, he must give due consideration to the harm that may result if the relationship is abruptly or prematurely discontinued.

7. The personnel worker in consultation with associates representing other professions will present such information and data regarding the client as they, by virtue of their training and competence, are capable of understanding and utilizing in the best interests of the client.

II. *Definition of Responsibilities to the Profession Itself*

1. The personnel worker should exert what influence he can to foster the development and improvement of personnel work as a profession. He will attempt to prevent and to rectify practices likely to result in offering inferior professional services or in lowering standards for personnel services.

2. The personnel worker will attempt to protect the profession from misrepresentations and misunderstandings.

3. The personnel worker should not attempt to gain favor by making personal comparisons damaging to colleagues, nor should he in any way belittle the services of ethical professional workers.

4. Individual personnel workers employed by organizations are obligated to demand the same standards of ethical practice in their organization as those assumed and specified in their individual services.

a. In accepting association with an organization, the personnel worker satisfies himself that he can accept its ethical practices.

b. Where he finds unethical practices in an organization with which he is associated, he shall seek to secure corrective action.

c. Where serious matters of unethical practice cannot be corrected, he is obligated to seek a more satisfactory professional relationship.

5. When in the opinion of the personnel worker another member of the profession is guilty of unprofessional conduct, and where educational or corrective action has been attempted or is not considered feasible, it is his duty to submit in writing to the Ethical Practices Committee a statement of the nature of the unprofessional conduct as he understands it with supporting evidence.

6. Permission of the copyright holder or original author should first be obtained before using any material or data already published, and the utmost care should be used to acknowledge the authorship and source of material.

7. The personnel worker, planning to use in his research and writing data belonging to the institution employing him, should receive written permission to do so.

8. The personnel worker writing on a scientific or professional subject should deal objectively and frankly with those sections which might be considered controversial.

9. The personnel worker should never report data falsely; nor discard, without explanation, data which may modify the interpretation of results and conclusions he publishes.

10. Professional tools and equipment should be offered for publication only to publishers and manufacturers who will present the information in a professional manner. The author shares responsibility with the publisher for providing adequate manuals of instruction and up-to-date research data, and in limiting the sale of these tools and equipment to qualified professional users.

11. The personnel worker should not accept and establish a professional relationship with a person who is currently receiving help from another counselor except as agreed upon by the latter counselor, unless the client terminates his relationship with his former counselor.

12. He will not compete with another personnel

worker by underbidding through reducing his normal fees after having been informed of the charges named by the other worker.

13. The personnel worker will not accept or offer a commission, rebate, or other forms of remuneration for referral of a client to professional service agencies.

III. *Interpretations of Services, Functions, and Qualifications to the Public*

1. The personnel worker will endeavor to extend public knowledge concerning counseling and personnel work and will discourage the spreading of untrue, unfair, and exaggerated statements regarding them.

2. It is unethical for a personnel worker to consent to the popular or non-technical publication of his research findings without reasonable assurance that a sound, unbiased, and properly qualified interpretation of his results will be made. Prepublication review shall be required by the personnel worker when he is a co-author or when he consents to the use of his name.

3. It is unethical for a personnel worker to permit his name to be used in connection with a professional activity or program with which he does not have a direct working relationship. In all such cases of professional endorsement, the nature of the connection should be clearly defined. Similarly, the unauthorized use by anyone within the profession of the name of another member of the profession is unethical.

4. The personnel worker will offer his services only within the area of his training, experience, and level of competence. Neither he nor his employees will undertake any activity in which their limitations are likely to result in inferior professional services.

5. Offering services entirely by mail, or relying solely on mechanical devices for counseling or guidance, is considered unethical.

6. Personnel workers announcing and/or advertising services are obligated to state their functions and qualifications in conformity with the following professional principles and conventions:

a. The nature of the services rendered will be specified with accuracy and clarity, and in a professional manner.

b. Listings in telephone directories shall be entered under specifically defined headings suggesting services for which the individual is qualified according to commonly recognized professional standards. (1) Listings shall be limited to the following items: name, highest relevant degree, licensing and/or certification or diplomate status including field or specialization where applicable, address and telephone number. (2) It is unethical to use the name of the American Personnel and Guidance Association in publicizing or offering services to the public, since such membership does not in itself quarantee the necessary professional training or competence.

c. Cards, letters, circulars and/or similar public announcements of either individual or agency services shall be developed and distributed in conformity with the following principles except as they may be modified by recognized professional and certifying agencies:

(1) Announcements of agency or individual practice shall mainly set forth a statement of name, or unambiguous statement of the nature and scope of services rendered, address, office hours, and telephone number.

(a) Agency announcements may list names of bona fide members of the staff, together with a separate listing of consultants and of part-time staff where applicable, and shall include their relevant educational and certification status wherever individual names are listed.

(b) Individual announcements similarly may include name, highest relevant degree, certification or diplomate status including specialty, along with the other pertinent details above specified.

(2) Supplementary descriptions of agency or individual services shall conform to the conventions of the specialties and related professions with which they are most closely associated.

(a) Announcements of counseling services may utilize brochures to make these services known to the public. They may appropriately be sent to professional persons, to schools, and to business organizations, but to individual clients only in response to inquiries. Direct mail advertising, repeated press advertising, or radio announcements are not acceptable procedures. Direct solicitation of clients is unethical.

(b) Consultation services to business, industrial, or educational organizations may directly solicit business and employ advertising of a promotional nature as long as they accurately describe the services. Announcements and descriptive materials may be sent directly to prospective clients, and may be run periodically in journals, trade papers, and similar media.

FLOYD C. CUMMINGS, *Director, Guidance Services Department, Evanston (Ill.) Township High School, Chairman;* PAUL C. GREENE; FRANK W. MILLER; PAUL PEARSON; GEORGE S. SPEER.

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White House Conference on Children and Youth

THE GOLDEN Anniversary White House Conference on Children and Youth will be held in Washington, D. C., March 27–April 2, 1960. APGA as a professional organization and many of its members as professional individuals are involved in this Conference, which is described as "the greatest single undertaking of our time in behalf of our young people."

The purpose of the 1960 White House Conference is to promote opportunities for children and youth to realize their full potential for a creative life in freedom and dignity. This purpose, or theme as it is sometimes called, will be based upon:

1. Study and understanding of (a) The values and ideas of our society; (b) The effects on the development of children and youth of the rapid changes in this country and the world; (c) How family, religion, the arts, government, community organizations, and services such as health, education, and welfare, peer groups, and the behavior of adults in their interactions with children and youth deter or enable individual fulfillment and constructive service to humanity.

2. Examination of the degree of achievement of previous White House Conference goals and recommendations.

3. Determination of the action that individuals, organizations, and local, state, and national government can take to implement conference purposes.

The basic organization of the White House Conference consists of three parts:

1. A National Council of state committees representing governor appointed committees from 54 states and territories and the District of Columbia.

2. A Council of National Organizations representing about 500 voluntary groups (APGA is a member of this Council).

3. An Interdepartmental Committee on children and youth representing 34 divisions of the Federal Government.

These three basic parts of the organization make it possible for the Conference to take place. Each of the three basic groups has its own organizational structure that is working on the Conference and they are joined together in the over-all National Committee of which President Eisenhower is Honorary Chairman. The structure of the Council of National Organizations includes a Chairman, Dr. Robert E. Bondy, a Vice-Chairman, Dr. Lyle W. Ashby of the NEA, a Secretary, and an Executive Committee. The Executive Director of APGA is a member of this Executive Committee.

The National Council of State Committees includes the various Governors' Committees on children and youth. It is in these groups that many APGA members are participating. Branch Presidents were reminded a number of times about a year ago to make representation to the governors of their states to obtain representation on these committees and apparently the response was very successful in many states.

The Conference in April will be structured along these lines:

1. There will be two plenary sessions whose participants will be the 7,000 invited guests and the purpose of which will be inspiration, theme setting, and synthesis.

2. There will be five theme assemblies of 14 persons each for the purpose of developing major aspects of the theme, pursuing the challenges of the Conference, and structuring the issues.

3. There will be 20 forums of 350 persons each for the purpose of presenting facts, findings, issues on specific aspects of Conference content.

4. There will be 240 work groups of approximately 30 persons each for the purpose of dealing with specific topics and to facilitate open discussion leading to findings.

The organization and structure of the Conference presupposes various avenues of follow-up and APGA undoubtedly will be involved in this.

There is very great concern, of course, with the 7,000 invitations to be issued by President Eisenhower, January 10, 1960. The invitations are divided as follows: 1,700 through the Council of National Or-

ganizations on Children and Youth; 2,900 through the National Council of State Committees on Children and Youth; 300 through the Federal Interdepartmental Committee on Children and Youth; 300 for public information media; 200 for National Committee and its subcommittees; 500 for international guests; 600 public officials—Supreme Court Justices, Members of the Cabinet, Governors, Members of the Congress; 500 reserve pool.

Ten per cent, or 700 registrants must be youth. Of these, 300 will come from national organizations and 400 from the state committees. Youth are defined as persons between the ages of 16 and 21. An additional 200 of the total 7,000 are to be young adults who are defined as between the ages of 21 and 30.

APGA will have basically two official representatives and there may be a little further allotment of spaces to APGA, depending upon the outcome of the next meeting of the Executive Committee (of which the APGA Executive Director is a member) on September 21 and 22. Each of the Divisions is also a member of the Executive Committee and so each will have two official representatives.

Further preliminary work in which APGA is involved includes the Executive Director's participation in a special subcommittee on youth employment. APGA may be involved in the further presentation of working papers on guidance. A number of APGA members will, of course, be participating guests at the Conference. Many are doing preliminary work in connection with the Governor's Committees on Children and Youth and many will take an important role in the follow-up work during the next several years. It is possible that the Branches will be called upon to take an active part at least in the follow-up work.

APGA has been in the focus of the Golden Anniversary White House Conference from the very beginning of the earliest planning meetings that took place and APGA joins many other groups, each of which has a special contribution to make to the value of this Conference.

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From the Executive Director . . .

It is a pleasure to be able to tell you that we now have added another professional person to the staff, making two of us. This has been made possible by the action of the Executive Council in providing for this position in the budget. The new person is Carl McDaniels, a young man in the guidance field who has been a very successful counselor and university guidance teacher and who is now completing his doctoral work at the University of Virginia. He will serve in the capacity of a Professional Specialist. He will answer a vast amount of professional correspondence; he will assemble and edit the publication on graduate scholarships and fellowships; he will handle the placement service; he is setting up the library facilities; he is working on the several studies and projects with which APGA is involved. We feel very fortunate to have obtained his services.

As professional activities continue, we are already looking toward the 1961 Convention. I have met once with President-Elect Feder and the top officials for the Convention. Dean Feder has appointed Robert L. McCleery, Associate Dean of Students at the University of Denver, as Convention Coordinator, and Kenneth B. Ashcraft, of the Colorado State Department of Education, as Program Coordinator. In addition, an Advisory Committee has been appointed under the Chairmanship of Dr. Clarence W. Failor, Associate Professor of Education at the University of Colorado. The Committee Chairmen are being appointed and it is expected that this phase will be completed by November, at which time we will have a meeting in Denver to plan the major details for the Convention. A workshop will be held late in April to set the stage for the big effort for the next succeeding months that will put the Convention into motion on Monday morning, March 27, 1961.

I wanted to cite the 1961 Convention to you as an example of the long range work that goes into APGA and also to acquaint you with the people who will be managing that Convention. Within five months, we will have started on the 1962 Convention. At the same time, the 1960 Convention in Philadelphia is reaching its stages of completion. Speakers are still being obtained and there will be a number of additions to the program, but the main parts of it already are established at this time in August as this column is written.

Membership is always an important consideration of the Association. It can now be reported that several of the Guidance and Counseling Training Institutes held under the National Defense Education Act during the past summer had 100 per cent APGA membership. These are the ones that are known: University of Alabama, Dr. Ralph M. Roberts, Director; Boston University, Dr. Dugald S. Arbuckle, Director; University of North Dakota, Dr. Paul F. Munger, Director; University of Wyoming, Dr. Lyle L. Miller, Director. Many other Institutes turned in substantial number of members and it is presumed that practically everyone who attended a Summer Institute and who now, of course, is in a professional counseling position will be a member of the Association. Special congratulations, however, go to the individuals and the universities cited for the great work that they accomplished in the membership area.

It seems probable that the future will bring more opportunities to counselors for training. One example of a new area is the institute that was sponsored by General Electric at Syracuse University during the past summer. This industrial sponsorship gives promise of further development. One of the areas in which more opportunities for counselor education are needed is for the counselor who has had sufficient formal training and good experience but now after a few years of work needs a refresher experience. This type of situation is not met very thoroughly under the National Defense Education Act and it is possible that this area can be advanced more strongly by other sponsorships.—Arthur A. Hitchcock

The GAP Gage: It's Your Interest, Too

DINNY DUNSMOOR, DIRECTOR
APGA PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ADVANCEMENT PROGRAM

THE DAY before the Battle of Trafalgar in 1805, Lord Nelson called a conference of the senior officers of his fleet. Noticing the absence of Captain Rotherham, who commanded the flagship of Admiral Collingwood, Nelson inquired of Collingwood the reason for Rotherham's absence. He received the reply that they were not on good terms with each other. "Terms," exclaimed Nelson, "not on good terms with each other!" He promptly adjourned the conference while he sent for Captain Rotherham. When the latter appeared Nelson led him to Collingwood and bade them both consider the long line of ships on the horizon—the combined fleets of France and Spain ready for action. "Look," he said, "yonder is the enemy. Shake hands like Englishmen." In the face of their common peril, they shook hands and became comrades again, ready to do battle side by side for the common cause.

There's a fitting parallel here for APGA in that we face for the next few years the combined "enemies" of mortgage and construction loan payments, with their resultant interest demands. Furthermore, while we have a strong and steadily increasing core of APGA and GAP supporters, the sad fact remains that many members and some branches have as yet made absolutely *no* financial contributions to GAP (our Building Fund) and are, seemingly at least, not on our side, but rather on the side of the "enemy." Some for the flimsiest of reasons and others because of downright indifference have ignored all pleas for assistance in paying for our new APGA home in Washington, D. C.

APGA, while by no means on the verge of anything approaching insolvency, has a "cash crisis" now and for the months immediately ahead unless we all get together and figuratively "Shake hands like Englishmen," in line with Lord Nelson's exhortation, and go into action against our common enemies—mortgage and loan reduction, and interest.

APGA's GAP has done well to date (end of July), having made the down payment of $50,000 on our new home, paid $4,000 in settling fees, purchased nearly $5,000 worth of furniture and fixtures, expended some $63,000 on renovations, and paid some $22,700 for loan reduction and interest. Our mortgage loan has been reduced to $142,500 and our construction loan to $38,000, with an additional payment of $6,000 due in October. By making loan payments totaling $19,500, we have reduced our annual interest payments from $11,000 to $9,928.50. This interest bill must go steadily and quickly down or we will have a greatly increased cost for our new home. This means as many and as large payments on our loans as possible.

Here's what individual or branch gifts will do for APGA:

Amount of Gift	Will Reduce Interest Payments of 5¼% in the Amounts Below, if Mortgage Runs for			
	1 Yr.	2 Yrs.	3 Yrs.	4 Yrs.
$100	$5.50	$11.00	$16.50	$22.00
50	2.75	5.50	8.25	11.00
30	1.65	3.30	4.95	6.60
10	.55	1.10	1.65	2.20
5	.275	.55	.825	1.10

Any gift to GAP that you make now, therefore, will do double duty: (1) it will help to reduce our loans by that amount, and (2) it will reduce our interest charges as listed above.

To revert to Lord Nelson for a moment—his Flagship, *The Victory*, at the Battle of Trafalgar, flew the signal: "England expects that every man will do his duty." In the same vein, "APGA expects that every member will do his duty" by *making a gift to GAP in 1959*—as much of it as possible *in cash this month.*

Publications Available from the American Personnel and Guidance Association

THE PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE JOURNAL — **$9.00 a year**
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Published three times a year by the American College Personnel Association

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notes from

OUR BRANCHES

THE ARKANSAS PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION held its Spring meeting on April 10. Dinner was served to approximately 65 members and guests and, following the dinner, the members heard an address by David A. Dudley, Director of Admissions for the Professional Schools at Columbia University. Mr. Dudley spoke on the subject "Looking Ahead in Education."

THE AKRON AREA VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION held its final meeting on the series on Manpower Skills in the Akron Area on May 6. The meeting featured an address by W. F. Patterson, Special Assistant to the Secretary, U. S. Department of Labor, Washington, D. C., who spoke on "Skilled Manpower and Our Future." In his address, Mr. Patterson discussed the manpower needs as they apply to the United States and Northeastern Ohio, including the trends in apprentice training and technical schools brought about by automation.

THE PUGET SOUND PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION wishes to remind everyone of the Fall Guidance Conference, "Counseling the Exceptional Child, Youth, and Adult," to be held at the University of Washington, November 5 and 6. Among participants in the conference will be Dr. William M. Usdane, Coordinator, Special Education and Rehabilitation Counseling Curriculum, San Francisco State College, and President of the Division of Rehabilitation Counseling.

THE HAWAII PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION at its May meeting featured an address by Dr. Harry W. Smallenburg, Director of the Division of Research and Guidance of the Los Angeles County Schools on the topic "Basic Elements of a Good Total School Guidance Program." At this meeting, the Branch was presented with the NVGA Branch Meritorious Achievement Award.

THE WISCONSIN PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION held its annual spring conference in Madison on May 9. Featured speakers at the conference included Dr. Gail F. Farwell, Associate Professor of Education, University of Wisconsin, and John Armstrong, Area Director of the California Test Bureau.

WHO'S WHO

—and Where

VICTOR P. A. WENZELL, Supervising Principal of the Southbury Training School, Southbury, Connecticut, has received a Fulbright Fellowship to study Special Education in New Zealand. He will be associated with Dr. Ralph Winterbourn of the University of New Zealand, Auckland, N. Z., for the academic year.

JOHN HENDERSON has left his position as Assistant Director of the Men's Division at Michigan State University to become Dean of Students at Western Illinois University, Macomb, Illinois.

ELDON NONNAMAKER, of the Residence Halls staff at Michigan State University, has been appointed Assistant Director of the Men's Division at MSU, East Lansing, Michigan.

ROBERT F. ETHERIDGE, who was formerly Assistant Dean at Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, Illinois, has joined the staff at Michigan State University as Assistant Director of the Men's Division.

GEORGE W. HARROD, Counselor-Trainer at Southern State College, Magnolia, Arkansas, is serving as an instructor on the

staff of the College of Education at Michigan State University during the 1959–1960 school year. Mr. Harrod is also completing the requirements for his doctorate while he is at MSU.

WILHELM FRANZ ANGERMEIER, who recently received his doctorate in psychology from the University of Georgia, has joined the faculty of Austin College in Sherman, Texas, as Assistant Professor of Psychology.

LENORE M. HARVEY, formerly Personnel Counselor at the VA Regional Office in Atlanta, Georgia, is now Chief of Psychological Services, Georgia State Department of Education, Division of Vocational Rehabilitation.

EVELYN M. MUMMA has left her position as Counselor in Mt. Diablo High School, Concord, California, to become Placement Adviser, Student Personnel Positions, Teacher Placement Office, University of California at Berkeley.

SALLY A. PRITCHARD, who has been Counselor at the Fairmont, Minnesota, Senior High School, has accepted a position as Counselor in the Britt, Iowa, schools.

THEODORE NICKSICK, JR., who has been Director of the Presbyterian Guidance Center, Austin College, Sherman, Texas, has become President of Ranger College, Ranger, Texas.

MARION E. VIRGIN has resigned as Adjustment Specialist with the Ohio State Services for the Blind to become a Rehabilitation Counselor with the Minnesota State Services for the Blind.

WILLIAM S. ZERMAN has left his position as Dean of Men at Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware, Ohio, to become Executive Secretary of Phi Gamma Delta in Washington, D. C.

CURTIS H. MOORE, Dean of Evening College and Summer Session at Rockford College, Rockford, Illinois, recently reported that in February, 1959, the college became coeducational for the first time. Rockford College, formerly a woman's college, accepted men to its degree program in 1955 and had been a coordinate institution since that time. Dr. Moore was the first Dean of Men, appointed in 1955, and in addition has served as Dean of the Evening College and Dean of the Summer Session. Expansion of the college has necessitated his giving up one of these duties. Therefore CHARLES U. WALKER, who came to Rockford College in June, 1958, as Assistant Dean of Men and Director of Placement has been appointed Dean of Men and Director of Placement. Dr. Moore will continue as Dean of the Evening College and Summer Session.

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LUCILLE J. CHAIKIN, who has been Counselor at Burlingame High School, Burlingame, California, has accepted a position as Counselor at Mills High School in Millbrae, California.

JOSEPH STUBBINS resigned his position as Chief of the Vocational Psychology Section, Psychology Service, VA Hospital, Montrose, New York, and is now Coordinator of the Rehabilitation Counseling Program, Los Angeles State College, Los Angeles, California.

SEYMOUR L. WOLFBEIN has been appointed to the top career position of Deputy Assistant Secretary of Labor. Dr. Wolfbein, formerly Chief, Division of Manpower and Employment in the Bureau of Labor Statistics, will continue to have responsibility in the over-all field of manpower and employment developments, including the guidance and counseling aspects of the Department's work.

BENJAMIN L. GOTHAM, who has been Coordinator of Research and Evaluation in the Tucson, Arizona, Public Schools, has accepted a position as Associate Professor of Guidance Education at the University of Wyoming in Laramie.

WESLEY C. HUCKINS has left his position as Superintendent of the Sundance, Wyoming, schools to become Guidance Coordinator in the Sheridan, Wyoming, public schools.

R. WRAY STROWIG, formerly Professor of Education and Psychology at Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, has joined the staff of the Department of Education at the University of Chicago.

BROTHER J. TIMOTHY has left his position as Vocational Director in LaSalle Institute, Glencoe, Missouri, to become Principal of the Christian Brothers High School in Quincy, Illinois.

RICHARD A. MERRIMAN, who has been In-Service Counselor Trainer at the University of Nebraska, is now Counselor Trainer at the Central Missouri State College, Warrensburg.

HARRY J. LAPINE has left the University of Kansas Guidance Bureau in Lawrence to accept a position as Research Associate in the Rapid Learner Project and Assistant Professor of Education and Psychology at the Ohio State Teachers College in Cedar Falls.

BENSON B. POIRIER, formerly in the Department of Continuing Education at Kansas State College, Manhattan, is now Assistant Dean, Division of University Extension, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale.

Emeritus Members Approved

The APGA Executive Council, at its meeting in May, approved Miss Frances Camp and Miss Helen Voorhees as Emeritus Members of the American College Personnel Association. Miss Camp is with the Educational Placement Office at the State University of Iowa, Iowa City, and Miss Voorhees is Director Emeritus of the Appointment Bureau at Mt. Holyoke College, South Hadley, Massachusetts.

These two members of long standing qualified for Emeritus membership, as it is defined by the APGA Constitution and By-Laws. According to Article II, Section 2, (f): "Emeritus members shall be persons who, having reached the age of sixty-five years, and who, having been a member of one or more of the Divisions or their antecedents of the Association for at least twenty years, may request such status with qualifications set forth by the Executive Council. An Emeritus member may be admitted by action of the Executive Council and approved by at least one Division." The By-Laws further state: "Emeritus members shall be exempt from paying dues, but they shall retain all rights and privileges of membership in the Association" (Article I, Section 5).

State Membership Coordinators 1959–1960

The following members have accepted responsibility for heading the APGA membership campaign in their respective states during the 1959–1960 year. One of their primary functions will be to coordinate the recruiting activities within their state. Each of these State Membership Coordinators heads a State Membership Committee composed of representatives from each APGA Division. The names of the Divisional representatives have been listed wherever the names were available.

Alabama: No State Coordinator Reported; ACPA—Leon D. Williams; ASCA—John W. Wood

Alaska: Dorothy G. Whitmore, Star Route B, Box 3896 P, Spenard; ACPA—James Parsons

Arizona: Milton A. Kiesow, Department of Guidance, Arizona State University, Tempe; ACPA—W. P. Shofstall; ASCA—David O. Lloyd

Arkansas: Eugenia Rives, Counselor, T. A. Futrall High School, Marianna; ACPA—Leon V. Vawter; ASCA—Minnie Lee Mayhan

California: John Schmidt, San Diego State College, San Diego 15; ACPA—Barbara A. Kirk and Gladys Jewett; ASCA—William E. Clarke

Canada: A. A. Aldridge, 10811 67th Street, Edmonton, Alberta; ACPA—A. J. Cook, Louis Chatel, and T. L. Hoskin; DRC—Alfred Feintuch

Colorado: Clarence W. Failor, University of Colorado, Boulder; ACPA—Helen N. Brush; ASCA—Marjorie Thomson

Connecticut: Francis W. McKenzie, Darien Public Schools, Darien; ASCA—Ellis Tooker; ACPA—George H. Stanley; DRC—Elizabeth Stabler

Delaware: E. A. Rutledge, Counselor, Harrington School, Harrington; ASCA—Elizabeth Cloud; ACPA—J. E. Robinson

District of Columbia: Helen S. Stone, Educational Counselor, George Washington University, Washington, D. C.; ASCA—Ralph Watt; ACPA—C. L. Miller

Florida: Margaret J. Gilkey, Director of Guidance Services, Dade County, Miami; ASCA—Margaret J. Gilkey; ACPA—Marna V. Brady; DRC—Bruce Thomason

Georgia: Cameron L. Fincher, Georgia State College of Business Administration, Atlanta; ASCA—Lester Herman, Jr.; ACPA—L. P. Bradley

Hawaii: Caroline F. Will, 1839 Keeaumoku Street, Honolulu 14; ACPA—Arthur A. Dole; DRC—Riley L. B. Yee

Idaho: Chauncy W. Abbott, 217 Peasley, Boise; ASCA—Angus McDonald; ACPA—S. Gene Odle

Illinois: I. Clark Davis, Dean of Students, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale; ACPA—Dennis L. Trueblood; ASCA—Floyd C. Cummings

Indiana: No State Coordinator Reported; ASCA—Dayton L. Musselman; ACPA—William L. Elster

Iowa: E. T. Burianek, 1807 K Street, S. W., Cedar Rapids; ASCA—Helen Fullerton; ACPA—Helen E. Focht

Kansas: H. Leigh Baker, Professor of Education, Kansas State University, Manhatten; ASCA—Gene Bell; ACPA—Carl G. Fahrbach, Jr.

Kentucky: Joann R. Chenault, Director, Counselor Training, University of Kentucky, Lexington; ASCA—Esther Adams; ACPA—Charles Elton

Louisiana: Russell E. Helmick, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge; ASCA—Marjorie Longsdorf; ACPA—Martin L. Harvey

Maine: Ruth L. Pennell, State Department of Education, Augusta; ASCA—Elsie M. Gervais; ACPA—George Nickerson

Maryland: William E. Kline, Board of Education, Towson; ASCA—Florence Erwood; ACPA—Richard H. Byrne; DRC—Gerald Wise

Massachusetts: Lawrence Litwack, 59 Laconia Street, Lexington; ASCA—Joseph Manning. ACPA—Edward C. Glanz; DRC—Julian S. Myers

Michigan: Virginia Weaver, Homer High School, Homer; ASCA—Francis B. Schneider; ACPA—Harry W. Lawson; DRC—John Jordan

Minnesota: Thomas A. Soldahl, School of Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis 14; ASCA—Ralph Sorenson; ACPA—Theodore Volsky

Mississippi: V. S. Mann, Box 266, State College; ASCA—Mildred Coleman; ACPA—Katharine Rea

Missouri: R. R. Eddleman, Director of Guidance Services, Hazelwood School District # R-1, St. Louis County, Box G, Hazelwood; ASCA—Minnie Dingee; ACPA—Robert Wright; DRC—Alberta Keuper and Adaline Cross

Montana: Robert E. Gorman, Director of Counseling Services, Montana State University, Missoula; ASCA—Donald L. Peters; ACPA—M. E. Brookhard

Nebraska: Doris McCaffey, Nebraska City Public Schools, Nebraska City; ASCA—Geraldine Whitted; ACPA—B. Gale Oleson

Nevada: Bernice McNaught, University of Nevada, Reno; ASCA—George R. Kelly; ACPA—Sam M. Basta

New Hampshire: Charles R. Dolan, Director, Occupational Information and Guidance, State Department of Education, Concord; ACPA—Helen Spaulding

New Jersey: J. Dale Weaver, 703 Mountain Way, Morris Plains; ASCA—Katherine Gaventa; ACPA

—Julia E. Read; DRC—Hirsch L. Silverman

New Mexico: A. A. Wellck, 724 Solano Drive, N. E., Albuquerque; ASCA—Robert Swanson; ACPA—A. A. Wellck

New York: Paul B. McGann, Associate in Education Guidance, University of the State of New York, State Education Department, Albany 1; ASCA—Florence Purcell; ACPA—Emerson Coyle; DRC—Norman Fertig, Jean Bloom, Patricia Livingston, and Morton Zivan

North Carolina: Sarah E. Wilcox, 4443 Wendover Lane, Charlotte 7; ASCA—Lucille Browne; ACPA—Roy N. Anderson

North Dakota: James D. Mathisen, Department of Public Instruction, Capitol Building, Bismarck; ASCA—Margaret L. Dehne; ACPA—Grant M. Norem

Ohio: Violet G. Bica, School Psychologist, Cleveland Heights Board of Education, Cleveland; ASCA—Violet Bica and Virginia Bica; ACPA—Lincoln Fisch; DRC—Hope M. Bair

Oklahoma: F. F. Gaither, University of Oklahoma, Norman; ASCA—Dan Gardner; ACPA—Frank McFarland

Oregon: Ambrose I. Huff, 3255 Royal Avenue, Eugene; ASCA—Ambrose Huff; ACPA—Howard E. Anderson; DRC—Phil Schoggen

Pennsylvania: Marion E. Peck, Bristol Borough School District, Bristol; ASCA—Martha L. Kemerer; ACPA—Charles Meyn; DRC—Howard Blank

Rhode Island: C. James Herrick, Assistant Professor of Psychology, Rhode Island College of Education, Providence; ASCA—Sister Mary Marjorie and James W. Eastwood

South Carolina: Julia Lesesne, Manning High School, Manning; ASCA—Julia W. Lesesne; ACPA—Louis B. Pope

South Dakota: Robert W. O'Hare, Director of Guidance Services, Sioux Falls Public Schools, Sioux Falls; ASCA—Merrill Sly; ACPA—Gerald M. Fort

Tennessee: Nathan E. Acree, 2803 Hemingway Drive, Nashville 12; ASCA—Dorothy Latimer and Ulrey K. Wilson

Texas: George C. Beamer, North Texas State College, Denton; ASCA—Evelyn L. Milam; ACPA—Charles C. Williams

Utah: Howard T. Reid, Brigham Young University, Provo; ASCA—Clara Richards; ACPA—Phelon Joseph Malouf

Vermont: Everett C. Dimick, State Supervisor of Guidance, State Office Building, Montpelier; ASCA—Richard Billard

Virginia: No State Coordinator Reported; ASCA—Lucille Gillespie; ACPA—Thomas E. Hawkins

Washington: Eugene E. Downer, 209 Olympic Place, Apt. 10, Seattle 99; ACPA—R. D. Williams; ASCA—George Palmer

West Virginia: Walter H. Jarecke, Director of Guidance, West Virginia University, Morgantown; ASCA—Virginia Keadle; ACPA—Orlo Strunk, Jr.

Wisconsin: T. J. Kuemmerlein, Milwaukee Public Schools, Milwaukee; ASCA—T. J. Kuemmerlein; ACPA—Lawrence P. Blum

Wyoming: Lyle L. Miller, University of Wyoming, 37 Education Hall, Laramie; ASCA—Geraldine Winkler; ACPA—Robert E. Lahti

FOREIGN:

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ACREE, NATHAN E 2803 Hemingway Dr, Nashville 12, Tenn.

ANDERSON, MARY LOUISE Asst Psychol, Georgia Warm Springs Found, Warm Springs, Ga.

ANDERSON, ROY N Head, Dept Occup Info & Guid, North Carolina State Coll, Raleigh, N. C.

APPEL, VICTOR H 4815 Trabue Rd, Columbus 4, Ohio.

BAKER, CHARLES D 432 Fieldcrest, Pittsburg, Kan.

BALLARD, JENNINGS F 10303 Insley St, Silver Spring, Md.

BENNETT, MARGARET E PO Box 385, Pasadena, Calif.

BERTNESS, HENRY J 1316 N 10th, Tacoma 6, Wash.

BLASDELL, DAVID J, JR Box 653, Bardonia, N. Y.

BONDRA, GEORGE Dir Psych Tstng, Bedford Cen Sch Dist 2, 47 West Hyatt St, Mount Kisco, N. Y.

BOROW, HENRY Prof, Gen Coll, Univ Minnesota, Minneapolis 14, Minn.

BOTT, MARGARET M Dean Girls, Peekskill HS, Peekskill, N. Y.

BOWMAN, CALVERT W Coord Couns, San Mateo HS, San Mateo, Calif.

BOYD, E VICTOR Bur Guid, State Dept Educ, Albany 7, N. Y.

BRAEUTIGAM, JAMES O Asst Mgr, Men's Res Halls, Univ Texas, 310 E 21st St, Austin 18, Tex.

BREAM, MRS LOIS GOULD Cheltenham HS, Elkins Park, Philadelphia 17, Pa.

BROWN, MRS J MOREAU Couns Coord, Clarkstown HS, New City, N. Y.

* This list includes those who have become Life Subscribers since October, 1958. Previous listings appeared in the October, 1957, and October, 1958, issues of the *Journal*.

BUCHHEIMER, ARNOLD Supv, Guid Lab, Bd Higher Educ, 921 Lexington Ave, New York 21, N. Y.

CABOT, GEORGE T Illinois Div Voc Rehab, Rm 300, 160 N LaSalle St, Chicago 1, Ill.

CASSADY, MELVIN A Kodaikanal Sch, Kodaikanal Dist Madeirai, Madras State, India.

CATHCART, ELTON Tchr, Kahani HS, 1837 Kahakaua Ave, Honolulu 15, Hawaii.

CLARK, WILLIS W 7140 Mulholand Dr, Los Angeles 28, Calif.

COHN, BENJAMIN Couns, BOCES Guid Cen, 546 N Bedford Rd, Bedford Hills, N. Y.

COOPER, JOHN M 1421 Clay St, Kissimmee, Fla.

COTTINGHAM, HAROLD F Sch Educ, Florida State Univ, Tallahassee, Fla.

COX, RACHEL D 503 Walnut Lane, Swarthmore, Pa.

DAVIES, RAY 4205 W 64th St, Kansas City 15, Mo.

DELLA SALA, JUSTINE 149 Linden Ave, Irvington, N. J.

DIGIOVANNI, ANGELO 44 Smith St, Manuet, N. Y.

DINKMEYER, DON 1917 N 74th Ave, Elmwood Park, Ill.

DODSON, LEONARD E 1138 NW 38th, Oklahoma City 18, Okla.

DRESHER, RICHARD H Admin Asst, Dept Guid & Placemt, Detroit Bd Educ, 1354 Broadway, Detroit 26, Mich.

DUNHAM, ELANOR C 22 Second St, New City, N. Y.

EBY, VICTORIA L Sch Couns, Robert A Taft HS, 420 Lincoln Park Dr, Cincinnati 14, Ohio.

EDGERTON, ALANSON H Dir Voc Guid, Univ Wisconsin, 2125 Chamberlin Ave, Madison, Wisc.

EDSON, WILLIAM H 206 Burton Hall, Stu Pers, Coll Educ, Univ Minnesota, Minneapolis 14, Minn.

EHRLICH, EMANUEL Grad Sch Educ, Yeshiva Univ, 622 E 20th St, New York 9, N. Y.

EVRAIFF, WILLIAM Coll Educ, Wayne State Univ, Detroit 1, Mich.

EWELL, ELIZABETH J Bur Guid, State Educ Dept, Albany, N. Y.

FEATHERS, DELMAR 176-01 133rd Rd, Jamaica 34, N. Y.

GARNER, JAMES K 625 Market St, San Francisco 5, Calif.

GILES, LEROY A Dean Stus, Carthage Coll, Carthage, Ill.

GREENE, MARGARET M State Educ Dept, Bur Guid, Albany, N. Y.

GUERRIERO, MICHAEL O Prog Advis, Guid & Sch Couns Prog, Sch Educ, The City Coll, 703 Lorimer St, Brooklyn 11, N. Y.

HICKMAN, MILDRED 7101 Franklin Blvd, Cleveland 2, Ohio.

HILL, JANE Asst Dean Women, Monnett Hall, Ohio Wesleyan Univ, Delaware, Ohio.

HOLMES, GENEVA J Dean Women, North Carolina A & T Coll, Greensboro, N. C.

HOWARD, DEANE 5834 Hardy Ave, San Diego 15, Calif.

HOWLEY, ORIANA B Rt 1, Knoxville, Tenn.

HUMMEL, RAYMOND C 13 Kirkland St, Cambridge 38, Mass.

JONAS, RICHARD O 4375 Rosewood, Houston, Tex.

KAGY, EUGENIA S 5541 La Pasada, Long Beach 15, Calif.

KANE, MARION D Dean, Mamaroneck Jr HS, Mamaroneck, N. Y.

KAPLAN, BERNARD A Bur Guid, State Educ Dept, Albany, N. Y.

KEETON, KATHERINE B 1404 62nd St, Des Moines, Iowa.

KELLY, LAWRENCE B 142 Mattos Dr, Freemont, Calif.

KEMPFER, HOMER 3700 Calvert Pl, Kensington, Md.

KENNEDY, JOSEPH S c/o Comm Educ, Box 1841, Juneau, Alaska.

KETRON, SARAH R Oak Ridge Schs, Oak Ridge, Tenn.

KITSON, HARRY D 928 Lincoln Way E, Mishawaka, Ind.

KLOPF, GORDON J TC Columbia Univ, New York 27, N. Y.

KOILE, EARL A Tstng & Couns Cen, Univ Texas, Austin 12, Tex.

KUNS, WILMA F 522½ Sunrise Court, East Lansing, Mich.

LANDSMAN, THEODORE Coll Educ, Univ Florida, Gainesville, Fla.

LEONARD, MARJORIE N Couns, Knickerbocker Jr HS, 320 Seventh Ave, Troy, N. Y.

LO CASCIO, RALPH Psychol, 18 Mailler Ave, Cornwall, N. Y.

LUEVANOS, EDWINA D Jr HS Guid Couns, Dunedin Highland Jr HS, Dunedin, Fla.

MACKAY, EDWARD J DAFC Hq Sqdn 483rd ABGp, Box 129, APO 75, San Francisco, Calif.

MACKAY, JAMES L 2205 W Mistletoe, San Antonio 1, Tex.

MACKAY, WILLIAM R 4067 Wesley Way, El Sobrante 11, Calif.

MASON, ROBERT L 901 S 12th, Laramie, Wyo.

MATHEWSON, ROBERT H 1 Gracie Terr, New York 28, N. Y.

MILLER, LEE 3717 Washington Ave, SE, Charleston 4, W. Va.

MOORE, GILBERT D Coll Educ, State Univ Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa.

MOORE, VIRGINIA R 5 St Eugene Lane, Florissant, Mo.

MORGAN, ANTONIA B Aptitude Assoc, Merrifield, Va.

MUNSON, HAROLD L 8 Warren St, McKnownville, Albany 3, N. Y.

MURPHY, ORRIELLE Dean Stus, State Tchrs Coll, Towson 4, Md.

MUSSELMAN, DAYTON L 1825 Florida Ave, Fort Wayne, Ind.

MYERS, GEORGE E Sunset Home, Concordia, Kan.

NASON, FLORENCE H 225 W Wenona St, Philadelphia 44, Pa.

NEISWENDER, MARTHA E Couns, Kimball HS, 1500 Lexington Blvd, Royal Oak, Mich.

NICHOLSON, EVERARD Valley Forge Milit Acad, Wayne, Pa.

NOVAK, BENJAMIN J 2003 E Elkhart St, Philadelphia 34, Pa.

O'HERN, JANE S 24 Worthington St, Boston 20, Mass.

OLDHAM, VERNON 78 Cross St, Foxboro, Mass.

PATOUILLET, RAYMOND 219 Kilburn Rd, Garden City, N. Y.

PATTERSON, CECIL H 2003 S Vine, Urbana, Ill.

PELLETTIERI, A J Dir, Reading Clin & Guid Cen, Univ St Thomas, 3812 Montrose Blvd, Houston 6, Tex.

PETERS, HERMAN J Assoc Prof Educ, Armory 4, Ohio State Univ, Columbus 10, Ohio.

PLATT, HENRY Dir Psych Trng, The Devereux Found, Devon, Pa.

POLMANTIER, PAUL C Prof Educ, Univ Missouri, Columbia, Mo.

REYNOLDS, MARIE Coord, Stu Pers Servs, Johnson City HS, 435 Main St, Johnson City, N. Y.

ROBB, ALVIN S, JR 1370 Merrimac Ave, Dracut, Mass.

RYAN, CHESTER 60 Maple Ave, Monsey, N. Y.

SCHWARTZ, G R Dir Stu Pers, Mankato State Coll, Mankato, Minn.

SCHWEBEL, MILTON 86 Riverside Dr, Rockville Centre, N. Y.

SCOTT, WINIFRED S 31 Patton Dr, New Brunswick, N. J.

SETTE, WILLIAM V Route 2, Box 403-A, Nixon, N. J.

SHARTLE, CARROLL L Pers Resch Bd, Ohio State Univ, Columbus 10, Ohio.

SHEPPARD, WALTER B Box 24, New City, N. Y.

SHULER, WESLEY A 54 Station Rd, Irvington, N. Y.

SNIFFEN, A MEAD 660 Washington Ave, Pleasantville, N. Y.

SOLDAHL, THOMAS Coll Educ, Univ Minnesota, Minneapolis 14, Minn.

STAKER, JAMES E 219 S Orange Ave, South Orange, N. J.

STERN, HELEN G 121 N Broadway, Apt 32-C, White Plains, N. Y.

STEVENS, SALLY W Guid Couns, Irvington HS, Irvington, N. Y.

STEVENS, VERNON S Stu Couns, Ontario Agric Coll, Guelph, Ontario, Canada.

STIGLIANO, LEONARD F Dir Guid, Suffern HS, Suffern, N. Y.

STRIPLING, ROBERT O Coll Educ, Univ Florida, Gainesville, Fla.

SWANSON, HAROLD I 2066 E Main St, Peekskill, N. Y.

TENNYSON, WILLARD W Burton Hall, Univ Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.

TITCOMB, BEATRICE Cook Co Sch Nursing, Chicago, Ill.

USDANE, WILLIAM M San Francisco State Coll, 1600 Holloway, San Francisco 27, Calif.

VAUGHAN, LEONARD W Dir Couns, Tstng & Placemt, Ripon Coll, Ripon, Wisc.

WARD, ANNIE W Dir Tstng Servs, Univ Tennessee, Knoxville, Tenn.

WATSON, HAROLD D Dir, Putnam County BOCES, Carmel, N. Y.

WEGNER, KENNETH W 1400 Tennessee St, Lawrence, Kan.

WEISS, JERRY M Coll Educ, Pennsylvania State Univ, University Park, Pa.

WESLEY, WILLIAM M 4041 Park Rd, Fort Knox, Ky.

WHITAKER, RUTH W Dir Guid, Rhode Island Hosp Sch Nursing, Providence 2, R. I.

WILLIAMS, EMMA E Couns, Milford Mill Jr-Sr HS, Granite, Md.

WILLIAMS, LYLE L St Louis Park Jr HS, 6300 Walker St, St Louis Park, Minn.

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